

KOREAN EMERGENT BILINGUAL STUDENTS' LANGUAGE USE AND
TRANSLANGUAGING

BY

CHAEHYUN LEE

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum and Instruction
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2018

Urbana, Illinois

Doctoral Committee:

Professor Emeritus Georgia E. García, Chair
Professor Sarah J. McCarthey
Professor Eurydice B. Bauer, University of North Carolina
Assistant Professor Liv T. Dávila

ABSTRACT

Researchers in the bilingual/biliteracy fields have investigated how emergent bilinguals developed their English language and literacy skills (e.g., Francis, Lesaux, & August, 2006), but very little attention has been given to students' language and literacy development in their heritage language (HL) (August & Shanahan, 2010; Goldenberg, 2011; Shanahan & Beck, 2006). Several researchers reported that when emergent bilingual children attended U.S. classrooms taught only in English, the children often lost or did not continue to develop their HL (Hinton, 2008; Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Shin, 2005; Tse, 2001; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). Although much of the HL shift/loss research has occurred with Latinx students (Gandara & Hopkins, 2003; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001), this phenomenon has also occurred with Korean emergent bilinguals in the U.S. (Chung, 2008; Shin, 2005).

Previously, much of the language loss/shift research with emergent bilingual children was conducted from a monoglossic perspective, and researchers who embraced monoglossic ideology often considered their use of two *separate* languages as deficient behavior (Bailey, 2007). Recently, researchers conducted studies that rejected the monoglossic ideology, using instead a heteroglossic perspective to examine bilinguals' translanguaging practices when they utilized their full language resources from their two languages (e.g., Bauer, Presiado, & Colomer, 2017; García & Godina, 2017; Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014). However, because most of the translanguaging research has dealt with the Spanish bilingual group, we have little understanding of how emergent bilingual children from other language minority groups in the U.S. (such as Korean-English bilinguals) develop and use their oral and written languages.

The number of Korean immigrants to the U.S. has grown rapidly since the Immigration Act of 1965 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016), and many Korean parents financially support HL

schools for their children's HL learning and development (Shin & Krashen, 1998). However, the extent to which Korean emergent bilinguals in the U.S. develop and use their oral and written Korean when they attend Korean HL schools is a question that has not received much attention in the bilingual/biliteracy research to date. To add to what is known about the role of the emergent bilingual students' HL in their bilingual development and performance, the present study investigates the bilingual (Korean – English) language performance of Korean emergent bilingual children (1st and 3rd grade) who attended a Korean HL school on Saturdays. This study addresses the following research questions: What characterized the Korean bilingual first and third graders' oral and written use of Korean and English at a Heritage Korean Language School? How did the focal Korean bilingual third graders' oral and written language use compare to their earlier use as first graders? What were the socio-cultural influences on the focal Korean bilingual first and third graders' language use? The findings can help to fill the gaps in the field of bilingual/biliteracy research by examining non-Latinx bilingual students' (i.e. Korean) language use and practice from a heteroglossic perspective in instructional settings other than dual language classrooms (e.g. HL classroom).

Qualitative discourse analysis and case study methods from a constructivist/interpretive paradigm were used to collect and analyze data (i.e. audio-recordings of classroom interactions, writing samples, and semi-structured interviews) during the Spring 2016 semester. The findings showed that the three first-grade English proficient students used more English than Korean and engaged in translanguageing when they spoke and wrote, although their translanguageing in writing was much less than in their spoken language. On the other hand, the three third-grade English proficient students spoke more Korean than English and composed mostly in Korean. They engaged in some translanguageing while speaking and writing, although it was much less

than the first-graders. Meanwhile, the Korean proficient student in both grades predominantly used Korean when they spoke and wrote and rarely used English or translanguaging.

In terms of the English proficient students' use of translanguaging, different functions were discovered in both the first- and third-graders' oral and written language use. Their implementation of translanguaging served various functions by demonstrating their sociolinguistic knowledge, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural understanding. Close analysis of the focal third-graders' longitudinal language use revealed that they continued to employ their HL and had improved their Korean proficiency and literacy skills between first- and third-grade thanks to their parents' practices at home. These findings provide directions for future research and implications for educators and parents of emergent bilingual students, which should help them to better support bilingual children's language and literacy learning.

To My Parents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would never have been able to finish my dissertation without the guidance of my advisor and committee members as well as support from my family.

Foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Dr. Georgia E. García, for her caring, motivation, immense knowledge, and the continuous support of my Ph.D. study and research. Her guidance helped me through all the time of research and writing of this dissertation. I appreciate all her contributions of time and support to make my Ph.D. experience productive and stimulating. Her research was inspiring and motivational for me, even during tough times in my Ph.D. pursuit. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my Ph.D. study.

Besides my advisor, I would like to thank the rest of my Dissertation Committee. Dr. Eurydice B. Bauer continues to guide my research in the bilingual/biliteracy field, and her passion for bilingual education encourages me to be a better bilingual educator and researcher. I thank Sarah J. McCarthey for her academic support and her guidance to my work in qualitative research and writing instruction development. I thank Dr. Liv T. Dávila for supervising my teaching language and culture courses and her work contributed to global perspectives on immigration and education for multilingual learners. Each of the members of my Dissertation Committee has provided me extensive personal and professional guidance and taught me a great deal about being an educational researcher. I thank my entire committee for their encouragement, insightful comments, and thoughtful guidance.

Nobody has been more important to me in the pursuit of this journey than the members of my family. I would like to thank my parents, whose love and guidance are with me in whatever I

pursue. I would also like to thank my younger brother, who was always supporting and encouraging me with his best wishes.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....	41
CHAPTER 4: FIRST-GRADE BILINGUAL KOREAN STUDENTS' LANGUAGE USE....	68
CHAPTER 5: THIRD-GRADE BILINGUAL KOREAN STUDENTS' LANGUAGE USE...	135
CHAPTER 6: FOCAL STUDENTS' BILINGUAL LANGUAGE USE OVER TIME.....	177
CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS.....	209
REFERENCES	246
APPENDIX A: TRANSLANGUAGING FOR EACH FUNCTION.....	265
APPENDIX B: COMPARISON OF TRANSLANGUAGING BETWEEN GRADES.....	269
APPENDIX C: IRB LETTER	271

Chapter 1

Introduction

Researchers interested in the language development and use of young emergent bilingual children in the U.S. – children who know one language at home (heritage language) and who are acquiring English (societal language) at school (García, Kleifgen, & Falchi, 2008) – have focused more on the children’s development and use of their second language (L2, English) than on their first language (L1) or heritage language (HL) (August & Shanahan, 2010; Goldenberg, 2011; Shanahan & Beck, 2006). For example, a number of researchers investigated how emergent bilinguals developed their English language and literacy skills (e.g., Francis, Lesaux, & August, 2006; Genesee, Geva, Dressler, & Kamil, 2006; Golberg, Paradis, & Crago, 2008; Slavin & Cheung, 2005). Yet, comparatively, little attention has been given to emergent bilinguals’ language and literacy development in their HL (August & Shanahan, 2010; Goldenberg, 2011; Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Tse, 2001).

Several researchers reported that when emergent bilingual children attended U.S. classrooms taught only in English, the children often lost or did not continue to develop their HL (Hinton, 2008; Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Shin, 2005; Tse, 2001; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). Other researchers reported that language shift or “the replacement of one language by another as the primary means of communication and socialization within a community” (Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert, & Leap, 2001, p. 253) had occurred with Latinx students (Gandara & Hopkins, 2003; Suarez-Orozco & Suarez-Orozco, 2001) and Korean emergent bilinguals in the U.S. (Chung, 2008; Shin, 2005).

Since the Immigration Act of 1965, the number of Korean immigrants to the U.S. has grown rapidly; throughout the 1980s, approximately 1 million Korean immigrants resided in the

U.S. and the number has continued to increase (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016). Korean immigrant parents often decline bilingual education services (Shin, 2005). Many of them believe that their children's Korean literacy skills have little direct relevance to their U.S. school performance, while the mastery of English directly impacts their children's success in school (Hinton, 2008; Shin, 2005). The parents' desire for their children to have educational success and prestigious careers in the future lead them to immerse their children in English only instruction (Shin, 2010; Tse, 2001). Although Korean parents may not support their children's enrollment in bilingual education, they often hold positive attitudes toward their children's HL development and consider the role of HL schools to be critical for their children's HL learning (Shin & Krashen, 1998; Shin, 2005). Many of them financially support Korean HL schools, which their children attend on weekends (Chung, 2008; Han, 2011). However, the extent to which Korean emergent bilinguals in the U.S. develop and use their oral and written Korean when they attend Korean HL schools is a question that has not received much attention in the bilingual/biliteracy research to date.

Researchers reported that when emergent bilinguals maintained their HL, a number of cognitive, social, and cultural advantages occurred (Cho, 2000; Cho, Cho, & Tse, 1997; Hakuta & Diaz, 1985; Krashen, 1998; Tse, 2001). For example, in terms of cognition, emergent bilinguals often used what they learned in their HL to approach the same topic in their L2 (Dressler & Kamil, 2006; Lü & Koda, 2011; Siu & Ho, 2015). In terms of social and cultural advantages, researchers found that emergent bilingual children who developed their HL were more likely to have positive interactions and social relationships with their family members and other HL speakers (Cho, 2000; Li, 2006; Park, 2006; Song, 2016) as well as a strong sense of their ethnic identity and cultural values (Chinen & Tucker, 2005; Lee, 2002; Oh & Fuligni, 2011;

Sayer, 2011; You, 2005). Moreover, HL development has been shown to contribute to children's biliteracy learning (Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Song, 2016). For instance, Latinx bilingual children who learned to read in Spanish and English outperformed those who only learned to read in English (Francis et al., 2006; Genesee, et al., 2006; Slavin & Cheung, 2005). Despite the benefits of HL learning, little is known about how emergent bilingual children develop their language proficiency and literacy skills in their HLs. Therefore, we need to know more about the role of the children's HL in their bilingual development and performance.

In the past, much of the language loss/shift research with emergent bilingual children was conducted from a monoglossic perspective (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, Wei, 2011), in which bilinguals were viewed as developing competence in two *separate* languages since “[they] are expected to be and do with each of their languages the same thing as monolinguals” (García, 2011, p. 189). As a result, researchers who investigated emergent bilingual children's language use often analyzed their use of each language independently of each other (Genesee, 2008).

Recently, a heteroglossic paradigm for viewing and conducting research on bilingualism has emerged. Bakhtin (1981) introduced the concept of heteroglossia by addressing it as a simultaneous use of a diverse range of registers, voices, languages, or codes in speakers' daily lives. According to Bakhtin (1981, 1984), heteroglossia refers to the multiple variations of voices within those languages; thus, it describes all the different ways people speak to one another. Following Bakhtin, heteroglossia was defined as the existence of different and multiple language varieties as a unitary system, which does not view languages as separate (Bailey, 2007). The heteroglossic perspective opened up spaces to accept and appreciate multimodal languaging practices (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Hornberger 2007) using multiple semiotic modes (e.g., script, voice, music, and image). From this heteroglossic perspective, García (2009)

conceptualized the term translanguaging, which describes bilingual speakers' strategy when they utilize their full language resources from their two languages, enabling them to access their *integrated* and *entire* language repertoires. In other words, translanguaging is viewed as a bilingual strategy, which bilinguals use to communicate and learn, in contrast to a monoglossive view of communication and learning, in which bilinguals use two separate languages (García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014).

García (2009, 2011) argued that when examining emergent bilingual students' language use, it is important to study how they are able to utilize their linguistic repertoires across two languages to communicate orally and in writing. However, according to García (2011), a large number of researchers have used a monolingual perspective that views each language as a separate autonomous system when examining bilingual learners' language development. García and Wei (2014) warned that "bilingual students' linguistic repertoires should not be measured with a single construct in a standard language" (p. 133). Other researchers also recommended that bilingual students should be given the opportunity to use their entire linguistic repertoires to make meaning and to develop their biliteracy skills (Escamilla et al., 2014; Escamilla & Hopewell, 2010; Soltero-González et al., 2012).

Researchers who have conducted studies of translanguaging primarily have examined its use as a pedagogical strategy (e.g., Esquinca Araujo, & de la Piedra, 2014; Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014). Only a few researchers have documented how elementary-age, emergent bilingual students engaged in translanguaging practices to communicate or make meaning. Several researchers examined young bilingual students' use of translanguaging while orally communicating (Duran & Palmer, 2014; Martin-Beltran, 2010; Sayer, 2011). To date, there are two empirical studies that have investigated bilingual learners'

use of translanguaging while reading (García & Godina, 2017; López-Velásquez & García, 2017), and a few studies have shown how emergent bilingual students used a translanguaging strategy to discuss their writing (Bauer, Presiado, & Colomer, 2017; Gort, 2012) and while writing (Velasco & García, 2014).

Most of the above research involved Spanish-English emergent bilinguals. Five out of eight studies were conducted in dual-language programs, where students received instruction in Spanish and English, which might have prompted their thinking in both languages. Only one study (Velasco & García, 2014) included Korean-English bilingual students, in addition to Spanish-English bilingual students, to examine their translanguaging practices when writing. Therefore, we have little understanding of how emergent bilingual children from other language minority groups in the U.S. (such as, Korean-English bilinguals) develop and use their translanguaging.

Purpose and Research Questions

To add to what is known about the role of the emergent bilingual students' HL in their bilingual development and performance, the present study investigated the bilingual (Korean – English) oral and written language performance of a sample of Korean emergent bilingual children (1st and 3rd grade) who attended American schools in English during the school week and a Korean HL School on Saturdays. The findings can help to fill the gaps in the bilingual/biliteracy literature, which primarily have paid attention to Spanish-English bilinguals' language use and development and that were conducted in dual language programs. To understand the influence of socio-cultural factors, the study also examined the role of the children's families in their Korean and English language use and development. Lastly, to address the language loss/shift issue, the Korean oral and written performance of two of the

Korean emergent bilinguals were compared when they were in first-grade and third-grade. The following research questions guided the inquiry:

1. What characterized the Korean bilingual first-graders' oral and written use of Korean and English at a Korean HL School?
2. What were the family influences on the Korean bilingual first-graders' language use?
3. What characterized the Korean bilingual third-graders' oral and written use of Korean and English at a Korean HL School?
4. How did two of the Korean bilingual third-graders' oral and written language use compare to their earlier use as first-graders?
5. What were the family influences on the two Korean bilingual third-graders' longitudinal language use?

Definition of Key Terminology

First-generation Korean immigrants. First-generation Korean immigrant indicates people who were born in Korea and immigrated to the U.S after their Korean language, culture, and identities were fully established (Rumbaut, 2000, 2001). All the parents of the students (except one mother who was a visiting scholar) in this study are first-generation Korean immigrants.

Second-generation Korean-Americans. Second-generation Korean-American refers to people who were born in the U.S. after their parents immigrated to the U.S. (Rumbaut, 2000, 2001). All the participating students (except one third-grader who recently came to the U.S.) in this study are second-generation Korean-Americans.

Heritage Language (HL). A heritage language denotes a language other than English that a person learns at home (Chinen & Tucker, 2005), which is associated with his or her ethnic

and cultural backgrounds (Cho, 2010). For non-English speaking immigrants in the U.S., HL is regarded as a minority language in the mainstream society. For the participating Korean students in this study, their HL might not be their dominant or most proficient language. I use the term HL to describe the students' home language in this paper.

HL learners. HL learners are those who “have/had achieved some competence in a minority language as a function of typical language socialization patterns in the home” (Murphy, 2014, p. 50). All the participating students in this study are HL learners although they may have different levels of HL proficiency.

Emergent bilingual. The term emergent bilingual refers to children who know one language at home (HL) and who are acquiring English (societal language) at school (García et al., 2008). I use the term emergent bilinguals to refer to the students in this study who are either more proficient in Korean or English but who have the potential to become fluent bilinguals in Korean and English.

Translanguaging. Translanguaging refers to the process whereby bi/multilingual speakers utilize their language repertoires as an integrated communication system (García & Wei, 2014). Translanguaging refers to “the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximize communicative potential” (García, 2009, p. 160); thus, it focuses on how people communicate rather than on the language itself. Translanguaging is used to explain the languaging practices and linguistic resources accessible to bilinguals to communicate in creative and meaningful ways (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010). I use the term translanguaging as an umbrella term when referring to the participating students' bilingual

language practices, which, among others, include translation, code-switching, and code-mixing (the latter are defined below).

Code-switching. Code-switching is one example of translanguaging, which refers to “the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical (sub-) systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event” (Bokamba, 1989, p. 278). I use the term code-switching (CS) when it occurs at an intersentential level (between sentences) (Genesee Nicoladis, & Paradis, 1995; Vihman, 1998).

Code-mixing. Code-mixing is another example of translanguaging which refers to “the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases and clauses from two distinct grammatical (sub-) systems within the same sentence” (Bokamba, 1989, p.278). I use the term code-mixing (CM) when it occurs at an intrasentential level (within a sentence) (Genesee et al., 1995; Vihman, 1998).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate young Korean emergent bilingual students' oral and written (Korean and English) language use. In this chapter, I present the theoretical framework that informed my work by discussing a sociocultural perspective on learning and the translanguaging paradigm. Then, I introduce past studies that were conducted from a monoglossic approach in order to understand the phenomenon of HL loss among emergent bilingual children, the parental role in children's bilingualism, and bilingual children's use of CS. Next, I discuss more recent studies that were conducted from a heteroglossic perspective by investigating teachers' use of translanguaging as their pedagogical practice in their bilingual classrooms and emergent bilingual students' oral and written translanguaging practices when they participated in classrooms. Then, I examine the literature on the nature of interwoven language practices, which displayed evidence of translanguaging in homes, families, and communities as a natural bilingual phenomenon. I end this chapter with a summary that reviews the literature discussed and identifies gaps that exist in the literature.

Theoretical Framework

This study is situated within two major theoretical frameworks: (a) a sociocultural perspective on literacy and learning (Health, 1983; Street, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978) and (b) translanguaging theory (García, 2009) from a heteroglossic perspective (Bakhtin, 1981, 1984). I first introduce the sociocultural perspective on literacy and learning informed by Street (2003) and then discuss O. Garcia's translanguaging theory.

Sociocultural perspective on literacy and learning. Many literacy scholars whose work reflects sociocultural perspectives (Gee, 2012; Lewis, Enciso, & Moje, 2007; Tracey &

Morrow, 2006) were influenced by the work of Vygotsky (1962, 1978). Vygotsky, as a socio-constructivist, argued that learning takes place through interaction with people and participation within the social environment; thus, for him, learning is not an individual or isolated activity, but a joint activity that occurs through active and dynamic interaction. By emphasizing the social environment, Vygotsky (1962) pointed out that “the true direction of development of thinking is not from the individual to social, but from social to individual” (p.20). That is, from the Vygotskian perspective, learning a language is a social behavior that is developed through social interactions.

Following Vygotsky, Halliday (1973) claimed that language is not independent of the social world; rather, since it occurs within a cultural context, culture is generated through language. Gee’s (1996) Discourses (with the capital “D”) as an “identity kit” also illustrated the ways in which language is connected with social and cultural contexts. Similarly, Bakhtin’s (1984) notion of language, that its use varies according to social and cultural contexts, explained that language instantiates culture. Street (2001) pointed out that in order to understand literacy practices, researchers need “detailed, in-depth accounts of actual practice in different cultural settings” (p. 430).

According to Street (2001), a sociocultural view of literacy emphasizes literacies that are situated in and created by participants. Street argued that literacy emerged as a result of social and cultural practices because it involved “thinking about, doing and reading in cultural contexts” (p. 11). Heath (1983) introduced the concept of “literacy events,” which describes “any occasion in which a piece of writing is integral to the nature of the participants’ interactions and their interpretative processes” (p. 50). Drawing on Heath, Street (1984) employed the phrase “literacy practices” by focusing on “the social practices and conceptions of reading and writing”

(p. 1) to emphasize the social models of literacy in which participants negotiate and make meanings when they read and write in specific cultural contexts (Street, 1984).

Street (1984) made a distinction between an autonomous model and an ideological model of literacy. The autonomous model of literacy is a traditional psychological approach, which viewed literacy as a mental or cognitive phenomenon; thus, reading and writing are treated as things people did inside their heads as a technical skill. In opposition to the autonomous model of literacy, Street proposed an ideological model. The ideological model of literacy challenged the traditional model since it offered a more culturally sensitive view of literacy practices by insisting that people engage in literacy practices in the society, not just inside their heads.

I conducted the present study consistent with Street's social view of literacies. Considering Street's argument that literacy should be studied in an integrated way by looking at social, cultural, and historical aspects beyond cognitive facets, I considered the cultural contexts and social practices when investigating the participating students' language use and development. Aligned with this approach, I employed the constructivist/interpretive paradigm (Mertens, 2015), which views that reality is socially constructed, because I wanted to understand "the multiple social construction of meaning and knowledge" (p. 18) that are socially constructed by the participants in the contexts where they are situated.

Translanguaging paradigm from a heteroglossic perspective. In the past, bilingual educators tended to insist that bilinguals' languages should be kept separate in learning and teaching so that emergent bilingual students were provided with appropriate amounts of instruction in the target languages (August & Hakuta, 1998; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). For example, the language policy in many two-way bilingual immersion programs in the U.S., where balanced numbers of native English speakers and native speakers of the partner language are

integrated for instruction (Crawford, 2004), was that instruction should be delivered in one target language at a time, and the mixing of languages should not be allowed in the classroom setting (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). In the same sense, Baker (2011) described bilingual education as bilingualism with diglossia (a situation in which two languages are used under different conditions and for distinct and separate social functions). Based on this notion of bilingualism, Heller (1999) coined the term *parallel monolingualism*, in which “each [language] variety must conform to certain prescriptive norms” (p. 271). Other researchers used the phrases “*bilingualism through monolingualism*” (Swain, 1983, p. 4), “*separate bilingualism*” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), and “two monolinguals in one body” (Gravelle, 1996, p. 11) to describe the boundary between the two languages.

To move away from the concept of bilingualism as parallel monolingualism, Bailey (2007) made a clear distinction between monoglossic and heteroglossic. Bakhtin initially (1981) coined the term *heteroglossia* to explain speakers’ simultaneous use of a diverse range of registers, voices, languages, or codes in their daily lives. According to Bakhtin (1981, 1984), heteroglossia refers to the multiple variations of voices within speakers’ languages. The Bakhtinian notion of heteroglossia replaced monolingual ideology in language education and advanced multilingual practices and polylingual pedagogy.

Influenced by Bakhtin’s theory, Bailey (2007) argued that heteroglossia explains the existence of different and multiple language varieties as a unitary system. The heteroglossia perspective allows speakers to utilize their collective linguistic repertoires to achieve their communicative aims in a given situation. Thus, heteroglossia opens up the spaces to accept and appreciate all kinds of multimodal languaging practices by rejecting the monolingual perspective, which views using two languages at the same time as a deficient behavior (Busch,

2012; Canagarajah, 2011; García, 2009). This heteroglossic viewpoint, in terms of language ideologies and linguistic practices, has led to the recent theory of translanguageing, which is different from traditional concepts of bilingualism (Blackledge & Creese 2010; Wei 2011).

In the past, bilingual researchers tended to pay attention to the language development of young bilingual children from a monoglossic perspective by looking at their L1 and L2 separately, rather than paying attention to how bilingual children developed and used both their languages (Martin-Beltran, 2010). From this monoglossic point of view, researchers and educators studied bilingual learners' language uses and choices. Although CS was regarded as "the most distinctive behaviour of the bilingual speaker" (Wei & Wu, 2009, p. 193), bilinguals' L1 and L2 were considered as separate rather than continuous notions (Cook, 2001; Martin-Beltran, 2010).

More recently, a translanguageing paradigm has been established and used in research on bilingualism and bilinguals (e.g., Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011; García, 2009). García (2009) preferred the term translanguageing to CS to explain bilinguals' normal and natural practices that are divergent from "diglossic functional separation" (Blackledge & Creese, 2010, p. 106). Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012) distinguished the concepts of CS and translanguageing by arguing that CS is associated with language separation, whereas translanguageing supports the use of the speaker's entire language repertoires flexibly. García and Wei (2014) also made clear distinctions between the two terms, CS and translanguageing. According to them, CS refers to when bilingual speakers shift from one language to the other by choosing a more applicable language from their two *separate* registers in a given context. In contrast, translanguageing practices enable bilinguals to "turn off their language switching function" (p. 23) and to access their *integrated* and *entire* language and linguistic repertoires.

By differentiating the two concepts, García (2009) critiqued the use of the term CS because it “put[s] to the service of the majority language . . . encouraging switching towards the dominant language only, and used progressively to take space and time away from the minority language until it disappears completely” (p. 297), whereas, in translanguaging practice, “there are no clear-cut boundaries between the languages of bilinguals.... What we have is a languaging continuum that is accessed” (p. 47). Thus, García’s (2009) concept of translanguaging goes beyond CS since translanguaging theorizes that bilinguals’ language practices are not separated into home language and school language (García & Wei, 2014). Rather, it incorporates language flexibility through the speaker’s full language repertoires (Lewis et al., 2012).

Translanguaging was coined by Cen Williams (1994) to refer to “pedagogical practice where students are asked to alternate languages for the purposes of receptive or productive use” (García & Wei, 2014, p. 20). Unlike traditional bilingual classrooms, where teachers only use the target language during instruction from a monolingual instructional approach (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), translanguaging explains that bilinguals are not “two monolinguals in one body” (Gravelle, 1996, p. 11) and “reject[s] society’s monoglossic view of bilinguals as two monolinguals” (Jiang et al., 2014, p. 314). In this regard, the term translanguaging currently is being used to explain bilingual pedagogy and instruction, where bilinguals are encouraged to utilize their two languages (García, 2009, 2014).

Translanguaging also refers to bilinguals’ dynamic and flexible use of languages, or complete linguistic resources, to communicate (Velasco & García, 2014). In other words, translanguaging is a linguistic resource accessible to bilinguals to communicate in a creative and meaningful way when they are communicating, making meaning, sharing experiences, and transmitting knowledge (Baker, 2011; Canagarajah, 2011; Velasco & García, 2014). Current

research on translanguaging aims to establish how people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds communicate successfully when they interact in various contexts. However, more work needs to be done to understand how bilingual students naturally engage in translanguaging practices for different purposes. Thus, informed by García's (2009, 2011) theoretical conceptualization of translanguaging, in my investigation of Korean-English bilingual students' language use, I sought to identify the different patterns and functions of their translanguaging when they participated in verbal interactions and writing at a Korean HL school.

The Phenomenon of HL Loss in the U.S.

According to Montrul (2008), HL loss occurs when an individual's primary language shifts to a new language or L2 when the individual lives in an L2 environment as a result of immigration (Tse, 2001; Veltman, 1983). Schmid (2010) pointed out that immigrant children are susceptible to losing the knowledge of their L1 if they have not fully mastered their L1 before being exposed to a new language. Most young immigrant children in the U.S. are identified as potential linguistic emigrants (Veltman, 1983), who could lose their HL when they are surrounded by English rather than their HL. Several researchers pointed out that when immigrant children want to be accepted into the mainstream culture (Murphy, 2014), then they are more likely to engage in English practices, which consequently leads them to experience language shift from HL to English and language loss in their HL (Shin & Krashen, 1996; Tse, 2001).

In terms of Korean immigrant families in the U.S., several researchers reported that Korean immigrant parents often assumed that teaching a language other than English would hinder their children's English learning and school success (Shin & Krashen, 1996; Shin, 2005; Tse, 2001). This false assumption has resulted in the Korean parents discouraging their children

from speaking their HL. Indeed, Shin (2005) found in her study, which employed participant surveys and interviews with 251 Korean teenagers (either U.S. born or immigrated to the U.S. at young ages), that the majority of the Korean children experienced HL shift and loss as they developed English by attending all-English classrooms in the U.S. Shin pointed out that “the most common outcome for Korean immigrant children in America is not bilingualism but monolingualism in English” (Shin, 2005, p. 51).

Although many immigrant children in the U. S. tend to experience the challenge of preserving their HL as they develop English, language minority groups have emphasized the significance and value of HL learning (Brecht & Ingold, 2002). Cho (2000) conducted in-depth interviews and research questionnaires with 116 Korean-American adolescents and young adults (mean age: 21) to explore the role of HL learning in their social interactions and relationships with other second-generation Korean Americans. The participants in Cho’s study reported that their HL learning had played an essential role in their personal achievement, social interaction, and bicultural development. With this finding, Cho argued that encouraging students to develop their HL is “an *additive* form of bilingualism” (Cummins, 1991) because their HL is added as a language without negatively impacting their English, and the two languages positively impact the students’ bilingual and bicultural knowledge (p. 383).

The Influence of Parents’ Involvement on Their Children’s HL Development

A number of researchers reported that immigrant parents’ attitudes towards HL learning were the most significant factor in maintaining children’s HL, and that parents’ support was a critical element in the children’s HL literacy development (Wong-Fillmore, 1991; Li, 2006; Park & Sarkar, 2007; Shin, 2005). For example, Lü and Koda (2011) administered a questionnaire to immigrant parents. The parents ranked the home context as one of the most significant factors

that contributed to the children's HL learning. Shin's (2005) survey research with Korean immigrant parents indicated that the parents' thought their positive attitudes about their children's Korean motivated their children to learn Korean at home. Similarly, Li (2006) in her year-long ethnographic study, showed that although Chinese immigrant children in her study felt the pressure of mastering English, when their parents provided a variety of resources in HL and supported HL learning in the home, the children began to have positive attitudes towards learning HL. She found that these positive parental attitudes and practices facilitated the children's HL development in the long term. Similarly, You (2005) studied 3rd to 8th grade Korean HL learners to investigate the relationship between parents' attitudes toward HL and children's HL learning. You's study included one particular student whose father was a Vietnamese-American but who seldom spoke Vietnamese and whose mother often spoke Korean and had positive attitudes towards teaching HL. The student presented more positive attitudes towards Korean language learning than Vietnamese language learning. With this finding, You pointed out that "parents' attitude toward native language and its use is very important to their children's heritage language maintenance" (p. 716).

Despite the close relationship between parents' attitudes/practices and their children's HL development, many immigrant parents often show more interest in developing their children's English proficiency rather than HL because maintaining HL does not directly influence the children's school performance in the U.S. (Hinton, 2008; Shin, 2005). However, several researchers reported that the children's HL use and learning did not hinder their English acquisition; rather, children who used their HL at home and who were supported in HL development by their parents showed success in their academic performance at school since it largely impacted their establishment of bilingualism (Duursma, Romero-Contreras, Szúber,

Proctor, Snow, & August, 2007; De Houwer, 2007; Lü & Koda, 2011; Nesteruk, 2010). For instance, in quantitative literacy assessment studies with 37 Chinese-English first and second grade bilingual children, Lü and Koda (2011) showed that Chinese immigrant parents' HL use and literacy support at home influenced the children's language and literacy skills (i.e., oral vocabulary knowledge, phonological awareness, and decoding skill). Given that there was no negative impact on the children's English learning while they were developing Chinese, the authors recommended that immigrant parents use and teach HL at home to raise their children as bilinguals and biliterates.

Pan (1995) used a qualitative discourse analysis to investigate the language use of 10 Chinese-speaking parents and their U.S. born children (ages 4-6) in two contexts (during a dinner meal and parent-child book reading time). Pan found that the parents' use of CS from Chinese to English served to move the children's conversation toward English. Her findings revealed that the maintenance of children's HL depended on parents' language choice/use and how often they interacted with their children using HL. Wong-Fillmore (1991) found that there was a negative influence of English-only practices at home on other language minority groups' use of HL. She further reported that a low maintenance of HL and a complete shift to English at home were more likely to weaken parent-child relationships. Wong-Fillmore suggested that immigrant parents should provide adequate support in HL in the home setting in order for their children to maintain their HL.

Park and Sarkar (2007) pointed out the important role of other family members in children's HL learning by showing that intensive communication between Korean children in the U.S. and their relatives in Korea avoided the children's HL shift/loss; rather, the on-going communication eventually assisted the children to develop their HL proficiency. In a qualitative

discourse analysis, Melo-Pfeifer (2015) highlighted the important role of other family members beyond that of the parents in children's HL learning. Melo-Pfeifer found that grandparents played a critical role in children's HL maintenance because "grandparents are considered the linguistic roots and the connection with the past more than the parents" (p. 28). Although researchers found that parents' positive attitudes towards HL and literacy practices at home supported their children's HL development to become bilingual and biliterate, we need to know more about how parents supported their children's HL learning in the long term and how the children developed their HL over time.

Emergent Bilinguals' Use of CS/CM

Much of the previous research on emergent bilingual students' language and literacy development was conducted from a monoglossic perspective and evaluated the children's use of each language separately. A major hypothesis was that bilingual children employed CS and CM due to their lack of language competence in their two languages (Genesee, 2008). Empirical research on bilinguals' oral use of CS and CM sought to understand HL loss through the examination of CS and CM patterns/structures (Bernardini & Schlyter, 2004; Min, 1997; Reyes, 2004; Vihman, 1998).

Several researchers examined the use and pattern of CS by sequential bilinguals who learn one language first, then are introduced to a second language (L2) (Bernardini & Schlyter, 2004; Genesee, 2008; Vihman, 1998). They found that the participating bilingual children (Swedish (L1) – French/Italian (L2); French (L1) – English (L2); and Estonian (L1) – English (L2), respectively) followed syntactic structure predominantly from their L1 instead of their L2. The bilingual students in the three studies were more likely to use their word order and grammatical morphemes from their L1 and added lexical items (content words and phrases) from

their L2. With this finding, Vihman (1998) argued that the use of lexical items from L2 in L1 sentence structures was considered the common CS/CM rule for young emergent bilingual children who have more proficiency in one language than the other.

Genesee (2008) found that young bilinguals code-mixed when they completed sentences by substituting the words in another language and also when they did not know the equivalent words in their spoken language. This CM pattern could be interpreted as a sign of young bilingual children's lack of linguistic competence in either or both languages because they code-mixed more often when using their less proficient language (Bernardini & Schlyter, 2004); thus, it had been previously viewed that children were filling the lexical gaps in that language. However, Genesee refuted the previous researchers' argument that children's CM was due to their lack of lexical items. According to Genesee, this analysis of children's CM was inferential because the former researchers did not provide evidence that showed the children's CM was a result of their lack of vocabulary knowledge. Genesee (2008) pointed out that researchers should understand bilingual children's CS/CM "as their strategy in order to extend their communicative competence during development when their proficiency in language is not complete" (p. 24).

Similarly, Min (1997) found that the Chinese-speaking bilingual preschoolers in her qualitative study produced CS both at intersentential and intrasentential levels, but they used more intrasentential levels of CS (i.e., CM) by adding the words or phrases from their less proficient language (English) into sentences in their dominant language (Mandarin). However, Min demonstrated that when the participating children used CM in their Mandarin speech, they knew the code-mixed words in English. With these findings, Min interpreted that the students' CM pattern was not because of their lack of vocabulary in one or the other language but because of the role of context (e.g., topics or activities that the students were more familiar with in

English). Reyes (2004) also reported that the second- and fifth-grade Spanish-speaking bilingual children in her study code-mixed (into Spanish) but they used the code-mixed words in their other language (English) in their subsequent utterances. She concluded that they knew the words in both languages, but used two different lexical items depending on the context and/or interlocutors. The findings of Min and Reyes contradicted the previous hypotheses that CS and CM occur because of young bilinguals' inability to differentiate their two languages or their lack of linguistic competence in either or both languages. Rather, their findings supported later researchers' arguments that young bilinguals' CS/CM behaviors were purposeful rather than random performance (Bauer, 2000; Gort, 2002) and systematic since it is "their strategy in order to extend their communicative competence" (Genesee, 2008, p. 24).

CS/CM studies with young bilingual learners' demonstrated the emergent bilinguals' sensitivities to their interlocutors' language use, their emerging bilingual identity, and their metalinguistic awareness of both languages (Genesee, 2008; Min, 1997; Reyes, 2004). As the studies showed that the young emergent bilingual children were able to use their linguistic resources from both their languages, bilinguals' use of CS/CM needs to be understood as not just a natural process of developing two languages but also as a communicative strategy that is unique to bilinguals (E. García, 2005; Genesee, 2008; Gort, 2008).

In contrast to the monoglossic research on bilinguals' use of CS/CM, current research on CS/CM from a heteroglossic perspective does not consider the students' HL as a mere vehicle to learn English because heteroglossia explains the existence of multiple language varieties as a unitary system, which avoids seeing languages as separate (Bakhtin, 1981; Bailey, 2007). As the heteroglossic perspective opened up spaces to accept and appreciate multimodal languaging practices, researchers studied bilingual students' entire language use and literacy development

through a translanguaging paradigm, which argues that bilinguals have one integrated language repertoire instead of two separate languages (García, 2009).

Translanguaging as Pedagogical Practices in Bilingual Classrooms

A number of researchers focused on teachers' use of translanguaging as an instructional strategy with bilingual students (e.g., Esquinca Araujo, & de la Piedra, 2014; Gort & Sembiante, 2015; Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014). The majority of the studies dealt with preschool and elementary Spanish-English bilinguals in dual language classrooms. In these studies, the teachers implemented diverse types of translanguaging strategies, such as CS/CM, translating, and using cognates, which are words in two languages with ancestral roots that share similar meanings and spellings (Nagy, García, Durgunoglu, & Hancin-Bhatt, 1993), to scaffold students' language development in both languages and to mediate their understanding by utilizing their complete linguistic resources.

For instance, in their year-long ethnographic study, Esquinca et al. (2014) examined a Spanish bilingual teacher in a fourth grade, two-way dual-language school. The researchers investigated how the teacher provided a space for translanguaging so that the complete repertoires of the students' languages were recognized and validated in her classroom. Although the disciplinary (science) instruction was delivered in English, the teacher guided her students to use translanguaging by utilizing their entire language resources to engage in the science content learning. For example, when the students used Spanish to discuss the concept of science that was delivered in English, the teacher did not interrupt the flow of conversation, but rather continued the discussion by using translanguaging as a tool. For example, she used cognates in English and Spanish to strengthen the students' vocabulary understanding. The teacher's translanguaging, including translating, paraphrasing, and CS, as her pedagogical practice

appeared to assist the students to develop their content area thinking and understanding. Thus, the study revealed that the teacher created spaces for bilingual students to use both languages flexibly as their languages did not remain separate in class discussions. Thanks to the teacher's bilingualism, the students in her classroom were able to make meaning of their science concepts and actively participated in the discourse practice by using translanguaging. However, because the teacher's science instruction was delivered in English, there needs to be more research in classroom settings where the content areas are delivered in the students' HL in order to see whether the students engage in similar practices of translanguaging or whether they mainly use their HL.

Similarly, Palmer et al. (2014) in a two-year ethnographic study explored two classroom teachers' (one in first-grade and another in kindergarten) translanguaging pedagogies in dual language classrooms. The researchers were interested in examining how the teachers used translanguaging instructional strategies and how their translanguaging practices worked as academic tools for students' language and literacy learning. Although there was the school's "language of the day" policy that specified one language should be used each day, the teachers translanguaged (code-mixed, translated, and used cognates in Spanish and English) during instruction in a natural manner in order to ensure the students' understanding of logistics and classroom activities. The researchers reported that the teachers' translanguaging provided a space for dynamic bilingualism, which supported the simultaneous coexistence of different languages for communication where bilinguals can engage to make meanings in the different cultural contexts (Flores & Schissel, 2014; García, 2009).

It was further found that the participating teachers considered all the students to be bilingually competent and potential bilingual translators (or language brokers) when they asked

them to translate for their classmates. The authors interpreted the teachers' positioning of their students as competent bilinguals, regardless of their actual bilingual competencies, as encouraging the students' language learning and development in both languages. In their study, Palmer et al. stated that language minority students could benefit when bilingualism was modeled and encouraged beyond the teachers' mere acceptance of students' use of translanguaging in bilingual classrooms.

Similarly, Gort and Sembiente (2015) conducted a two-year ethnographic study to examine teachers' language practices in a Spanish/English dual language preschool classroom by paying attention to translanguaging pedagogies during the classroom activities. The classroom where the study was conducted regularly scheduled show-and-tell activities with three teachers present (one lead teacher and two teaching assistants, each of whom was fluent in Spanish or English). The head teacher's language designation shifted on a weekly basis between Spanish and English. The two teaching assistants co-taught with the head teacher by providing a different language model than the one she used. The teachers employed translanguaging practices, including CS/CM, translating, bilingual recasting/revoicing (re-uttering by repeating, rephrasing, summarizing, elaborating, or translating the interlocutor's speech), and language brokering, which is a practice in which bilinguals "...facilitate communication between two linguistically and/or culturally different parties" (Tse, 1996, p. 485) by paraphrasing in the other language. These various forms of pedagogies demonstrated that the teachers positioned translanguaging as a normal practice and important resource for the bilingual students in the classroom.

Gort and Sembiente (2015) also pointed out that the head teacher's prevalent and intentional use of Spanish "protect[ed] the position and value of Spanish in the classroom" (p.

22). For instance, when she took the role of speaking English, she also used Spanish when interacting with her partner teacher to provide her students with more opportunities to be exposed to the Spanish language. That is, although her language designation was English, she purposefully chose to use Spanish, which challenged the hegemony of English in the classroom, which society (U.S. school) regarded as a more dominant and powerful language than Spanish. The three teachers' dynamic bilingual practices and their language use in this study suggested that when teachers challenge ideologies that deprecate students' cultural and linguistic assets, they can generate spaces and possibilities for bilingual students' potential language and linguistic resources to support their language and literacy learning as well as their bilingual identity development.

Worthy, Durán, Hikida, Pruitt, and Peterson (2013) conducted an ethnographic study to investigate a fifth-grade teacher's use of translanguageing during her instruction (read alouds) in a late-exit transitional bilingual program. In the latter type of bilingual education program, teachers use students' L1 to teach content and literacy but steadily reduce the amount of L1 usage over the grade levels while increasing content and literacy instruction in English (Baker, 2011). Since the research was conducted in a fifth-grade classroom, only 10% of the instruction was delivered in Spanish. By resisting the greater focus on English than Spanish, the teacher tried to provide her students with instructional experiences in both languages. For instance, the teacher used both English and Spanish flexibly when initiating literature discussion and provided a space for students to use Spanish by asking specific questions in Spanish.

Furthermore, the teacher positively valued her students' languaging practice by supporting the use of both Spanish and English so that the students could draw on their linguistic and cultural knowledge and resources during the class discussions. Thus, this study showed how

the teacher's translanguageing supported her students' learning by helping them to negotiate the meaning of academic content as well as how teachers can ideally build rich learning spaces for their bilingual students. Although the study demonstrated that the teacher created rich learning spaces for her Spanish-speaking bilingual students by providing a bilingual pedagogical practice (e.g., translanguageing), the study was conducted in a transitional bilingual program (TBE) with upper elementary grade (fifth-grade) students. Thus, more research is needed to find out how teachers and students utilize their language resources when instruction is delivered more in the HL. In addition, since the study focused on upper elementary students, it is important to further examine how teachers' language use and instruction would be different in elementary transitional bilingual classrooms for younger students.

In a study that focused on a native-language Chinese teacher's instruction (45 minutes a day) in a transitional program of instruction, in which students from a range of languages other than English were in ESL classrooms for almost half of the day, HL classrooms for 45 minutes daily, and all English classrooms the rest of the day, Jiang, García, and Willis (2014) reported that the teacher used translanguageing not just to promote his fourth/fifth-grade Chinese emergent bilinguals' Chinese language development and comprehension but also to promote their bicultural awareness. The researchers' discourse analysis findings showed that the teacher used CM (as an example of translanguageing) not only to enhance students' bilingual learning by crossing the boundary of L1 and L2 but also to increase the students' understanding of cross-cultural differences.

Martinez, Hikida, and Durán (2015) examined the language use and ideologies of two bilingual teachers in a English-Spanish dual language program. One teacher taught in kindergarten/first-grade while the other teacher taught in second/third-grade. The researchers

investigated the two Spanish-English dual language teachers in order to explore how their language ideologies were reflected in their everyday linguistic and pedagogical practices. When the teachers were asked about their beliefs, thoughts, and feelings regarding translanguaging, the kindergarten/first-grade teacher (Ms. Birch) favored bilingualism and held an appreciative view of translanguaging when students communicated orally. However, she did not think that translanguaging should be promoted in young bilingual students' writing because they were not as bilingual as older bilingual students or adults. She thought her first-graders, whose literacy was at an emerging stage, should be encouraged to stick to one language, Spanish, so that they could become fluent bilinguals. She presented this one language rule when the students engaged in writing in Spanish in order to promote and sustain Spanish, which she considered as a less privileged and less dominant language in the U.S.

Similar to Ms. Birch's ideologies about language separation, the other second/third-grade teacher, Ms. Quixote, believed that maintaining the designated language of instruction was an ideal pedagogy for her emergent bilingual students. She saw that her responsibility was to avoid translanguaging and indeed be attentive to her own translanguaging. Ms. Quixote regarded her students' translanguaging as a way of filling their lexical gaps. She further believed that students who were more proficient in both languages were less likely to mix languages in conversation. Her belief regarding her students' translanguaging reflected dominant language ideologies and language purism, which suggests that language mixing is a deficient behavior.

However, it was interesting to find that there was a contrast between the teachers' language ideologies (i.e., language separation and linguistic purism) and their actual language practices in the classrooms since both teachers (Ms. Birch & Ms. Quixote) engaged in translanguaging more than their stated ideologies. Considering the classroom context where

English monoglot prevailed (California), the teachers privileged Spanish to confront English hegemony ideologies. In other words, the teachers cultivated the students' Spanish proficiency as a way to promote bilingualism since they believed that there was a power imbalance between the two languages; thus, they had to protect the Spanish language. Thus, their ideologies were not based on language separation; instead, they showed their efforts to support Spanish. Unlike their ideologies, the teachers' actual practices showed that they naturally engaged in translanguaging, which embodies ideologies of linguistic hybridity and pluralism. With these findings, Martinez et al. (2015) pointed out that in order to promote and sustain students' HL (Spanish in this study), teachers did not need to exclude their use of transanguaging or discourage the students from translanguaging. They further suggested that when teachers engaged in frequent translanguaging and encouraged their students to do so, they provided a space for their students to become fluently bilingual and bicultural.

The studies discussed in this section illustrated how bilingual teachers implemented translanguaging pedagogies in their classrooms. The findings suggested that when classroom teachers implemented and incorporated translanguaging into their instruction, they leveraged bilingual students' potential to develop their language and linguistic repertoires. However, it is important to further study whether bilingual children naturally use their complete language resources without teachers' implementation and incorporation of translanguaging into their instruction.

Emergent Bilingual Learners' Translanguaging Use

Although the term translanguaging was used to refer to the teacher's pedagogical practices in bilingual classrooms in order to scaffold bilingual children's language and literacy development (Canagarajah, 2011), a few researchers studied how bilingual learners engaged in

translanguaging while communicating, reading, and writing. We need these studies because once we know how bilingual children use their languages and engage in translanguaging practices, bilingual educators can better support their language learning and development.

Durán and Palmer (2014) used qualitative discourse analysis to investigate Spanish bilingual students' language use in two first-grade two-way immersion bilingual classrooms. The researchers reported that when the classroom teachers provided space for Spanish when the instruction was supposed to be in English and vice versa, the participating students used translanguaging in an appropriate and meaningful way to engage in classroom interactions. Not only did the students utilize the translanguaging strategy when they engaged in classroom interactions, but also their use of translanguaging was accepted by their peers during bilingual pair time, when students worked together primarily without the teacher's guidance. The students self-positioned their roles as language learners or language experts during bilingual pair times by using their language resources through CS in a natural manner. Thus, translanguaging was a normalized practice in the classroom. According to Durán and Palmer (2014), their findings displayed that the students' languages were valued and validated in the classroom, and each individual's full linguistic repertoires created a classroom environment where bilingualism was welcomed. The classroom environment and the teachers' affirmation of translanguaging appeared to help the students to understand that the classroom was a place to utilize their complete language repertoires.

Martin-Beltran (2010) employed a qualitative discourse analysis to study fifth-grade Spanish-speaking bilingual students' classroom interactions in a dual-language program, where students' instruction in Spanish and English was 50 percent of the time. The researcher reported that the bilingual students drew on their bilingual resources to understand unfamiliar concepts.

The students' language use in the classroom also revealed that they used translanguaging when engaged in collaborative dialogue, which Swain (2000) defined as dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building through social interaction. The findings further revealed that the students' translanguaging appeared to promote their metalinguistic awareness since they often engaged in private speech by utilizing both languages as a verbal problem-solving process.

Sayer (2011) conducted a two-year ethnographic study on bilingual students' language practices in a second-grade bilingual classroom where TexMex, a language blending of Spanish and English as a bilingual vernacular, is used in a Mexican American community. Sayer found that the participating teacher and students often participated in translanguaging practices through TexMex. The students translanguaged for different functions, for example, to check comprehension and to conform to a principle of code alignment. According to Sayer (2011), bilingual speakers tended to follow the language that the more powerfully positioned speakers used (p. 81). Thus, the students in his study purposefully used translanguaging through TexMex in order to make sense of their language use and to actively participate in bilingual discourse practices.

Emergent bilingual readers' translanguaging. The majority of the translanguaging studies have paid attention to bilinguals' speech rather than their literacy practices (Smith & Murillo, 2015). However, a few researchers have investigated elementary bilingual students' translanguaging when they engaged in reading.

García and Godina (2017) employed a qualitative think-aloud study to examine six fourth-grade Mexican-American emergent bilingual students who were or had been in a TBE program. The researchers were interested in understanding how and to what extent strong

readers in Spanish employed their reading strategies while reading in English and Spanish. The researchers used a cross-linguistic analysis to compare the students' reading strategies across their two languages. The findings revealed that the students demonstrated *general strategies* (e.g., decoding, predicting, questioning) that were derived from the monolingual literature (p. 286) as well as *bilingual strategies* in their two languages (i.e., CS, CM, translating, and using cognates).

García and Godina concluded that the students were translanguaging when they used general and bilingual reading strategies in one language to understand their reading in another language and when they utilized the same types of strategies across languages when reading in the two languages. The authors interpreted the students' use of translanguaging as being close to Daniel and Pacheco's (2016) definition of translanguaging, in which the students "mov[ed] across languages and registers of speech to make meaning" (p. 653). Although the study supported a translanguaging view of bilingual reading practices, the authors recommended that further research be conducted with younger students at different ages to understand how their developing bilingual proficiencies affected their use of translanguaging. In addition, since the study did not examine the teachers' classroom instruction and the sociocultural contexts of home and family, they called for further study of these contexts and bilingual reading to better learn about emergent bilingual children's reading performance and development.

López-Velásquez and García (2017) employed a qualitative case study method to examine how two first-grade Spanish-English emergent bilingual students used their bilingual reading strategies when reading texts in two languages. Both girls received reading instruction in Spanish at home. Although the school did not provide biliteracy instruction in reading, one student (Nina), who received Spanish reading instruction at school, code-switched (as an

example of translanguaging) into Spanish to interpret what she had read in English. The other student (Andrea), who received reading instruction in English, demonstrated her use of heteroglossic practices by engaging in translanguaging in a bidirectional way (e.g., responding to Spanish texts by using English and questioning English texts by using Spanish).

Both students were involved in heteroglossic processes and employed translanguaging practices when they engaged in reading and discussions in the non-instructional or alternative language (e.g., reading in Spanish and discussing in English). The researchers concluded that the two students demonstrated their bilingual reading strategies and practices, which exemplified the “heteroglossic nature of their developing biliteracy” (p. 259). The authors concluded that the two bilingual first-graders were able to utilize their language and linguistic resources even though they were placed in monoglossic school instructional settings; thus, teachers should be aware that bilingual children may naturally develop their biliteracy and need to appreciate and support their heteroglossic practices.

Emergent bilingual writers’ translanguaging. Several researchers reported that young emergent bilingual writers also were engaged in translanguaging in their biliteracy development (Velasco & García, 2014). In earlier studies by Edelsky (1986) and Lanauze and Snow (1989), although the researchers did not use the term translanguaging, they showed evidence of emergent bilingual writers’ use of translanguaging during their writing process, even when their writing was produced in only one language. For instance, Edelsky found that first- to third-grade Spanish-speaking students utilized their linguistic knowledge in Spanish when writing in English by using Spanish phonology (e.g., “ai joup llu gou agien tu scu ll [I hope you go again to school]” p. 8), but they did not directly use Spanish words or phrases in their compositions. Velasco and García (2014) argued that the traditional biliteracy studies in writing provided

evidence that young bilingual writers were able to use their entire linguistic repertoires in the writing process.

Recently, several researchers have focused on the presence of translanguaging when bilinguals plan their writing and compose (Gort, 2012; Velasco & García, 2014; Bauer et al., 2017). Gort (2012) conducted a qualitative study for six months to examine the patterns of first-grade emergent Spanish-English bilingual students' CS, as an example of translanguaging, when they engaged in writing-related talk. Her findings revealed that the bilingual students' CS demonstrated their sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence as well as their metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness since they purposefully used CS when reflecting and evaluating their own writing. The students strategically utilized their language repertoires orally from their two languages while writing texts and their bilingual talk, which involved CS, supported them to create and develop their writing. Because the students used their dual-language repertoires as they engaged in bilingual interactions to carry out their writing tasks, translanguaging practices appeared during their writing process. However, it is unknown how they actually engaged in translanguaging practices in their written product.

Velasco and García (2014) explored how bilingual learners demonstrated translanguaging in their actual compositions. The researchers used a case study methodology to investigate K-4 grade Korean-English and Spanish-English bilingual students who were in dual language programs by examining their writing samples. The participating students revealed that they were able to use their entire linguistic repertoires when presenting their written texts, although the instruction was in one language. Velasco and García found that the bilingual writers used translanguaging in different writing stages; that is, they flexibly used their linguistic repertoires in planning, drafting, and producing their final compositions. These bilingual writers utilized

translanguaging as a unique strategy in order to write and solve problems by themselves. This study implies that translanguaging is not merely a pedagogical strategy that teachers use to scaffold their students. Rather, it suggests that translanguaging is a strategy that emergent bilinguals use in order to make sense of their language use and further proceed with their literacy learning. Although the study showed bilingual writers' translanguaging practices while they were composing, the findings revealed that not all the bilingual children used their two languages during their compositions (8 out of 24 writing samples reflected translanguaging practices). According to Velasco and García, researchers need to contemplate why not all bilingual children utilize their full linguistic repertoires. Because the study was conducted in dual-language classrooms in which there was strict adherence to monoglossic language separation, they wondered about the impact of the instructional context on the bilingual students' use of translanguaging. The researchers suggested that the students who did not use translanguaging might have used other strategies when writing, and called for further research to learn about bilingual students' writing strategies.

A recent study by Bauer, Presiado, and Colomer (2017) used qualitative methodology to examine two minority kindergarten students (Latino and African American) in a dual language classroom when they worked as buddy pairs for their writing activities. The two focal students supported and helped each other to develop their writing as they received each other's feedback. For example, Manuel, the Latino child, translanguaged when he communicated with Elizabeth (the African-American child) and supported her vocabulary by translating the English word (fly) to Spanish (volar). Elizabeth also engaged in translanguaging by utilizing her prior knowledge when she translated the English phrase (Snow White) to Spanish (Blanca Nieves).

Bauer et al. (2017) reported that the two emergent writers engaged in on-going writing partnerships as they scaffolded each other's language repertoires through their dialogues, and the students' interaction as a buddy pair appeared to facilitate their translanguaging to become biliterate. The study corroborated previous findings that translanguaging encouraged students to develop their thinking, planning, and writing (Gort, 2012; Velasco & García, 2014) and further demonstrated that translanguaging practices encouraged bilingual students to support each other's language and linguistic repertoires while engaging in metalinguistic talk (p. 23). Bauer et al. recommended that bilingual educators should appreciate what bilingual students already know about languaging so that they could draw on their students' knowledge in order to support them as competent bilinguals and biliterates.

Only one of the above studies (Velasco & García, 2014) analyzed students' translanguaging in their actual writing. Additional research on how bilingual writers engage in translanguaging practices during composing is needed.

Translanguaging Practices in Bilingual Homes, Families, and Communities

García (2011) explained that translanguaging is an inevitable practice among bilingual families and communities as they interact and construct meaning. Although previous researchers examined the language use in bilingual homes, families, and communities, they did not use the term translanguaging because it had not been introduced. Nevertheless, researchers provided evidence of how bilingual children and families participated in translanguaging practices in home settings as part of their everyday experience using two languages (e.g., Donor, Orellana, & Li-Grining, 2007; Donor, Orellana, & Jiménez, 2008; Song, 2016). Particularly, Donor et al. (2007) showed how immigrant children worked as language brokers in their home to provide linguistic help for their family members.

Donor et al. (2007) conducted a longitudinal case study with fifth- and sixth-grade Mexican immigrant students in the U.S. by documenting their everyday language use with their family members. Their findings revealed that the immigrant children served as language brokers for their family members when they provided language and linguistic support in English through translating and interpreting practices. Donor et al. argued that the children's language practices were not solitary activities; rather, they were "social and relational events in which families engage together and in relation to society" (p. 538). The study implies that understanding bilingual children's language brokering practices across diverse contexts provides evidence of their potential to translanguage.

Recently, Song (2016) explored whether and how translanguaging was used among bilingual families in the home setting. In her participant observation study, Song investigated four Korean bilingual children and their family members in the U.S. during home literacy events to examine how the parents of emergent bilingual children supported their children in becoming bilingual and biliterate in Korean and English. Song found that the bilingual families engaged in everyday literacy practices by using their two languages flexibly and strategically in order to create and negotiate meaning. As a bilingual strategy, one of the families involved in collaborative translation practice during their literacy events by utilizing their full language and literacy resources. The parents' translanguaging practices enabled the children to develop their understanding of unfamiliar words or expressions in their HL.

Song (2016) further found that the participating parents often used trans-enunciating, which means pronouncing English words with Korean phonemes (p. 97). The children tended to use the parents' trans-enunciation of English words in their Korean utterances. That is, the children pronounced English words in a way that the Korean oral language affords. Song

concluded that the bilingual children's ability to recognize differences in Korean and English pronunciation provided evidence of their metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness.

Summary and Gaps in the Literature

This chapter discussed the theoretical framework that informed this dissertation by focusing on a sociocultural perspective on learning and the translanguaging paradigm as a model of dynamic bilingualism. The chapter then reviewed past studies that were conducted from a monoglossic approach (i.e., HL loss among emergent bilingual children, the parental role in children's bilingualism, and bilingual children's use of CS). I then discussed more recent studies that were conducted from a heteroglossic perspective. Specifically, I discussed research on teachers' use of translanguaging as their pedagogical practice in bilingual classrooms and emergent bilingual students' oral and written translanguaging practices when they participated in classroom interactions and writing tasks. I further examined the literature on language practices in homes, families, and communities, which displayed evidence of potential translanguaging as part of bilinguals' everyday experience using two languages.

The studies reviewed in this chapter showed that immigrant children in the U.S. were more likely to experience language shift from HL to English and language loss in their HL (Shin & Krashen, 1996; Tse, 2001) when they primarily engaged in English practices in the mainstream culture (Murphy, 2014). A number of researchers suggested that immigrant parents should provide adequate support in HL in the home setting in order for their children to maintain their HL because the parents' attitudes and support toward HL learning were the most significant factor in developing their children's HL (Wong-Fillmore, 1991; Li, 2006; Park & Sarkar, 2007; Shin, 2005).

In terms of emergent bilingual students' language learning, much of the previous research focused on bilingual children's CS/CM. CS/CM studies conducted from a monoglossic perspective considered bilinguals as using two separate languages (Bernardini & Schlyter, 2004; Min, 1997; Reyes, 2004; Vihman, 1998). Some of the researchers concluded that young bilingual children's use of CS/CM indicated a sign of their lack of linguistic competence in either language (Bernardini & Schlyter, 2004) because it mostly occurred when they spoke in their weaker language (Vihman, 1998). Other researchers reported that bilingual children employed CS/CM as a unique bilingual communicative strategy that indicated sensitivity to their interlocutors' language use, their emerging bilingual identity, and their metalinguistic awareness of both languages (Bauer, 2000; Gort, 2002; Genesee, 2008; Min, 1997; Reyes, 2004). Current research that employed a heteroglossic perspective explained the existence of bilinguals' multiple language varieties as a unitary system (Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Researchers who employed a heteroglossic perspective (Bakhtin, 1981; Bailey, 2007) studied bilingual students' entire language use and literacy development by utilizing a translanguaging paradigm to study CS/CM (García, 2009).

A number of researchers focused on teachers' use of translanguaging as an instructional strategy by implementing diverse types of translanguaging strategies, such as CS/CM, translating, and using cognates (Esquinca et al., 2014; Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Jiang et al., 2014; Palmer et al., 2014). The studies reviewed in this chapter also examined how emergent bilingual learners engaged in translanguaging practices. The findings demonstrated that bilinguals were able to utilize their complete language repertoires orally (Durán & Palmer, 2014; Martin-Beltran, 2010; Sayer, 2011), during reading (García & Godina, 2017; López-Velásquez & García, 2017), and writing (Gort, 2012; Velasco & García, 2014; Bauer et al., 2017).

Although the term translanguaging had not been introduced, several researchers provided evidence of how bilingual children and families participated in translanguaging practices in home settings as a natural bilingual phenomenon (Donor et al., 2007; Donor et al., 2008; Song, 2016).

Although bilingual and biliteracy researchers have adopted the translanguaging paradigm from a heteroglossic perspective, there still are gaps in the literature. First, the majority of the studies paid attention to the Spanish-English bilingual group, and little is known about other language groups (such as Korean-English). Second, most of the studies were conducted in DL programs in the U.S.; thus, there is little research that investigated bilingual students' translanguaging practices in other types of classroom settings (such as HL classrooms). It is important to note that the goal of dual language programs is to develop proficiency and literacy skills in both L1 and L2, which include students who are native English speakers and students from other language backgrounds, whereas HL programs provide instruction in HL for HL learners to develop and maintain their HL. Third, the majority of the studies to date have paid attention to teachers' translanguaging pedagogies (Esquinca et al., 2014; Gort & Sembiente, 2015; Martinez, et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2013; Palmer et al., 2014; Worthy, et al., 2013) and older bilingual learners' translanguaging practices (Martin-Beltran, 2010; García & Godina, 2017); thus, we have little understanding of young emergent bilingual students' translanguaging practices both in the classroom and home/community settings. Fourth, since most translanguaging research has tackled bilinguals' oral discourse (Durán & Palmer, 2014; Martin-Beltran, 2010; Sayer, 2011) rather than their writing practices (Velasco & García, 2014), we do not have enough research findings about emergent bilingual writers' translingual practices (Canagarajah, 2013). Lastly, compared to the translanguaging studies conducted in instructional

settings, there is little research that investigated the translanguaging practices among bilingual families. To fill the gaps in the literature, the present study investigates *elementary grade* (first- and third-grade) *Korean-English* bilingual students' *oral and written* language use *in a HL classroom* as well as their translanguaging practices *at home*.

Chapter 3

Methodology

I employed the constructivist/interpretive paradigm (Mertens, 2015) because I wanted to understand the “complex world of lived experiences from the point of view of those who live it” (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). My purpose in this dissertation was to investigate Korean emergent bilingual students’ oral and written Korean and English language use. Since "reality is socially constructed" (Mertens, 2015, p.12), the constructivist/interpretive research paradigm with its focus on social construction, multiple participant meanings, and naturalistic phenomenon (Creswell, 2003) was appropriate for my research.

Based on the constructivist/interpretive paradigm, I employed a qualitative discourse analysis methodology that combined micro and macro analyses. Micro-level analysis is needed to examine the speaker’s language use, verbal interaction, or communication, whereas macro-level analysis is needed to analyze the surrounding socio-cultural context that influences the speaker’s language use and discourse (van Dijk, 1990). Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, and Shuart-Faris (2008) pointed out that the discourse analysis approach can help researchers examine the sociocultural orientation of language and literacy events in classrooms. Discourse analysis helped me to closely examine what the students actually did with Korean and English (Saville-Troike, 2003; Gee, 2012) and how they used languages within specific events (Bloome, et al., 2008). Because I wanted to understand the students’ “ways of behaving, interacting, and speaking” (Gee, 2012, p. viii), I examined the role of the students’ families in their language use.

I also employed qualitative case study methodology as part of my dissertation in order to present mini-case studies of three of the four first-graders. Stake (1996) points out that researchers need to find issues that “force attention to complexity and contextuality ... and draw

attention to problems and concerns [from the cases]” (p. 16). I examined the individual student’s language use and then further investigated the parents’ attitudes/actions towards their children’s language use. The case study approach served as the appropriate methodological framework for this part of the study because it provided me with tools to study complex phenomena within the different sociocultural contexts of each family (Creswell, 1998).

Research Context

This study primarily took place in a Korean HL School in a university town in the Midwest. The Korean language school was private and designed for Korean students in the town to help their heritage language learning by providing formal instruction in Korean at each grade level. Most of the enrolled students were second-generation Korean-Americans who were born in the U.S. after their parents had immigrated to the U.S.; other students were first-generation Korean immigrant students, who were born in Korea and moved to the U.S. with their families. All the students at the Korean language school attended American schools in English on weekdays and attended the Korean language school on Saturdays. The school provided classes for Korean heritage students in preschool-grade 5. The classes at all grade levels met three hours per week on Saturdays, from 10:20 a.m. to 1:20 p.m. The school had recess for 15-20 minutes around 11:00 a.m. During recess, the students were offered snacks and had free-play time.

The primary data collection occurred during a first-grade class and a third-grade class at the Korean HL school during the Spring semester of 2016. Secondary data (i.e., mothers’ interviews) also were collected during Summer 2016 outside of the school (e.g., home setting). Longitudinal data were from my earlier pilot study with Korean first-graders at the school who at the time of my dissertation data collection were in the third-grade class. Pseudonyms are used for all the participants. The pilot study is briefly described below.

Pilot Study

The pilot study occurred during Spring 2014 for six weeks for my Early Research Paper. I investigated how two types of Korean first-grade students in the U.S. – Korean immigrant (born in Korea) and Korean-American students (born in the U.S.) – orally responded to multicultural Korean children's literature at the Korean language school described above. I was the teacher in the first-grade class at the Korean language school. I collected the pilot data during the Korean storybook reading time and in-class writing time, which took place during the last 100 minutes of the class. In terms of language use in the first-grade classroom, the students were allowed to use English when they communicated with each other in order for them to actively participate in the book discussions. Although the main language of instruction was Korean, I, as the classroom teacher, also used English as needed, so that all the students understood my instructions and the storybooks I read to them in Korean.

The students' oral responses during the Korean multicultural book discussions were audio-taped over six weeks. I used discourse analysis (Gee, 2012) to document the students' patterns of responses to the selected books as well as to document whether/how their responses differed depending on their immigrant status (Korean or Korean-American) and language proficiency in English and Korean. Six first-grade students (three were Korean immigrants and three were Korean-American children) participated in the study.

I conducted two semi-structured, open-ended interviews with each of the students by using both Korean and English. Interviews with each student's mother were also conducted in Korean. I then analyzed the transcripts of the students' book discussions and students and mothers' interviews. I coded the students' oral responses to the multicultural texts to see

whether they used the texts as their mirrors or windows (Sims Bishop, 1990; 1992) by adapting Keene and Zimmerman's (1997) classification – text-to-self, text-to-text, or text-to-world connections. I also compared the two groups' responses to the book *The Name Jar* (Choi, 2003) by juxtaposing their oral responses in the book discussions with their interview data to see whether the students thought it was appropriate for the main character to create an English name or to preserve her Korean name. Then, in order to study the participants' language use, I coded each student's oral use of Korean and English by focusing on what appeared to prompt the students' language use (e.g., context, interlocutor, topic).

I found that although the students in both groups were able to make text-to-text connections in their oral responses to the books, the students who made text-to-self connections were from the Korean immigrant group. The texts that the students read acted as mirrors for the Korean immigrant students (Sims-Bishop, 1992). I further found that the students in the two groups presented different viewpoints in terms of preserving a Korean name in the U.S. The Korean immigrant students valued preserving the name that their family gave them, whereas the Korean-American students saw the usefulness of having an English name in the U.S.

The interviews with the mothers revealed that the mothers of the Korean immigrant students (Group A) reported spending more time teaching their children Korean and showed higher interest in their children's Korean language learning than the mothers of the Korean-American students (Group B). The mothers of the Group A students reported that they encouraged their children to speak in Korean at home and believed that learning Korean was important for their children. They further explained that they tried to teach Korean culture, customs, and traditions beyond the Korean language. On the other hand, the mothers of the students in Group B responded that they spent less time teaching in Korean, let their children

speak English at home, and did not endeavor to teach Korean culture to their children. Thus, it appeared that the students' perspectives on Korean names were not just affected by their language preference or proficiency in both languages but also by their parents' involvement in teaching Korean in the home setting and perspectives on raising their children as Korean.

Regarding the students' language use, unlike the Korean immigrant children who only spoke in Korean during the book discussions, the Korean-American students often used English and code-switched between Korean and English. The Korean-American students frequently used intra-sentential code-switching by inserting English content words into their Korean sentences. Below, I discuss how I collected data for my dissertation, which extended some of my early research findings.

For my Early Research Paper, I investigated the first-graders' oral responses to multicultural Korean children's literature and further analyzed how they orally used Korean and English in their book discussions. I also collected their writing samples although I did not analyze them for the Early Research Paper. For my dissertation, I focused on a new group of first graders and four third graders. Two of the third graders had been in my first-grade class when I collected data for my early research paper. I re-analyzed their first-grade oral language use and analyzed their first-grade written language use, which I then compared to their third grade oral and written language use. In the following sections, I discuss the methods I employed for my dissertation.

Participants

Students. At the time of my dissertation data collection, 10 students were enrolled in grades 1 and 3 at the school (5 at each grade level). There were two sets of siblings in the first and third-grade classes. All the students were invited to participate, but the parents of a set of

siblings did not agree to participate in the study. Thus, eight students participated in this study (four first-graders and four third-graders). All eight students attended American schools taught in English on weekdays. Table 1 provides background information on the study participants.

Table 1

Description of Students

		Age	Gender	Birthplace	Proficient Language	Time at Korean Language School
1 st graders	Joon	6.2	Male	U.S.	English	3 years
	Yuri	5.9	Female	U.S.	English	3 years
	Rena	6.3	Female	U.S.	English	1.5 years
	Nari	6.4	Female	U.S.	Korean	3.5 years
3 rd graders	Toni*	8.4	Male	U.S.	English	5.5 years
	Julie*	8.6	Female	U.S.	English	5 years
	Suji	8.2	Female	U.S.	English	5 years
	Mina	8.8	Female	Korea	Korean	First semester

Note. * The third-grade students who participated in the pilot study as first-graders.

Three of the first-graders are females and one is male. All of them were born in the U.S., and had been enrolled in the Korean language school for 1.5-3.5 years. Three of them identified themselves as English proficient but limited in Korean, and one (Nari) saw herself as a balanced bilingual but more proficient in Korean than English.

Three of the third-graders are females, and one is male. Three of them had been born in the U.S. and viewed themselves as English proficient. One of them had been born in Korea and

considered herself to be Korean proficient. The English proficient students had attended the Korean language school for 5-5.5 years. The Korean proficient student recently had arrived in the U.S. Two English proficient students (Toni and Julie) in the third-grade class were my former students (as first-graders) and participated in my pilot study in Spring 2014. The other English proficient student (Suji) was my former student in Fall 2014 only (as first-grader); thus, she did not participate in my pilot study in Spring 2014. Toni and Julie participated as focal students in the current study, which analyzed their longitudinal language use over time.

Parents. Seven parents (all mothers) out of a total of 14 parents participated in this study. All but one of the mothers (Mina's) were first-generation Korean immigrants. Mina's mother came to the U.S. with Mina for a short period of time (for two years) as a visiting scholar. The other parents came to the U.S. when they were teenagers or in their early thirties.

There were four focal parents (two from the first-grade and two from the third-grade) who agreed to participate in additional interviews and to keep journals about their children's language use at home. The two focal parents in the first-grade were selected based on their children's self-reported language preference and proficiency: one child viewed himself as English proficient, and the other saw herself as Korean proficient. The two focal parents in the third-grade were the mothers of my former pilot study participants (in Spring 2014).

Teachers. The teachers in the first and third-grade classes participated in the study. I was the first-grade teacher. The third-grade teacher was a female native Korean speaker. She came to the U.S. two years ago with her husband. She self-reported her English proficiency as intermediate in terms of listening comprehension and basic regarding speaking proficiency. She had taught second graders during the previous year at the heritage Korean Language School.

The researcher/teacher. I am the researcher and the first-grade teacher at the heritage Korean Language School. It was my fourth year of teaching first-graders at the school. I am from Korea, a native-Korean speaker, and bilingual in Korean and English. I am a fifth year doctoral candidate in Bilingual/ESL Education and hold a Master's degree in the same field, with a teaching certificate in the area of ESL education.

Researcher's positionality. This section helps the readers to understand my investment and role as a researcher in this study since I held both positions as an insider (the classroom teacher) and an outsider (the researcher). Qualitative research requires the researcher's reflexivity to identify his or her experiences and understanding of the research site (Denicolo, 2016; Stake, 2010). I drew on my prior experiences as a HL teacher for emergent bilingual students to understand how the bilingual students used language and linguistic repertoires as tools for learning. I reflected on how I was making sense of the context and participants by considering the role and purpose of bilingual and HL education for Korean emergent bilingual students and their learning experiences as HL learners.

In terms of the language use in the classroom, I allowed my students to use English and translanguaging if they needed during the class discussions instead of asking them to stay in Korean only because I understood that they would spontaneously and unconsciously utilize their language repertoires both from Korean and English. In addition, I wanted them to participate in the class discussions as much as possible without a language barrier. I was concerned that the English proficient students may not be engaged in class discussions if they were required to speak Korean only. I, as a teacher, also used English and translanguaging in certain situations. For example, when the class did not understand my questions that were asked in Korean, I repeated them in English purposefully so that the class would stay engaged. Furthermore, as

bilingual I also used English by translanguaging instinctively when I interacted with my bilingual students.

In order to avoid the potential biases (as both a teacher and researcher), which may impact the study, I tried not to disturb the natural ecology of the social world by expressing my own beliefs (Roman & Apple, 1990). Even though one of my objectives was to collect data in the classroom to analyze the students' oral and written language use, my primary objective as a HL classroom teacher was not collecting and analyzing data for this study, but rather encouraging the students' classroom participation and assisting their HL learning. Therefore, I (as a researcher) tried to collect data in a natural setting by foregrounding the students' learning over the data collection.

Korean expert. Since my dissertation includes Korean words, phrases, and sentences from the participating Korean bilingual students' speech and writing samples, I hired a Korean language expert who could check that the Korean translation in my dissertation was accurate and trustful. The person is a native Korean speaker and a Ph.D. student in the Department of Veterinary Medicine at the same university where I attend. He checked all the Korean transcripts and made sure that they were accurately transcribed in Korean, and then double-checked that all the Korean transcripts were accurately translated into English in this paper.

Data Collection Sources and Procedures

First-grade classroom data. Instruction in the first-grade classroom was divided into three parts. For the first 50 minutes, I taught students Korean communicative and literacy skills by using a government designated Korean textbook. The title of the book was *Kuk-uh* [the Korean language]. Then the students had 15-20 minutes of recess. After recess, the class participated in Korean storybook reading time and in-class writing for 50 minutes each. It was

during the storybook reading time and in-class writing time that I collected classroom data for the dissertation.

In terms of the language use in the first-grade classroom, the students were allowed to use English when they communicated with each other. Although the main language of instruction was Korean, I, as the classroom teacher, also used English as needed, for instance, when I wanted to make sure that the less Korean proficient students understood what I had said in Korean.

Audio-recording of students' talk during the reading and writing sessions. Since I predominantly talked during the first part of the day (when the class learned from the government designated Korean textbook), the audio-recordings occurred during the reading and writing class sessions only. During the reading class sessions, I brought a book every week to read with the students, and then held a book discussion with them. For the Korean storybook selection, I mainly used Korean folktales in a bilingual version. I selected Korean folktales because the students did not have an opportunity to learn about those types of books in their American schools. I also provided bilingual versions of the books if available to help the students comprehend the texts so that they did not feel that their limited competence in one of the languages prevented them from comprehending the stories.

Before reading aloud a book to the class, I did picture walks by showing the illustrations of the book and asked questions that could encourage the students' imagination about the stories in the chosen books. After I read aloud the books, the class read it again by taking turns. Then the students were encouraged to participate in book discussions based on what they had read, and I initiated discussion questions to capture the students' attention. The students' oral responses during book discussions were audio recorded for about an hour each week for 14 weeks.

Writing conferences with each student were conducted each week throughout the semester. I met with each first-grade student when he/she completed his/her writing as a part of the writing class session. I spent 5-10 minutes discussing their main texts, caption writing, and drawings that accompanied their writing. Each student's spoken language use during the writing conferences was audio-recorded and analyzed later. The total audio-recording of writing conferences with the four first-graders took 330 minutes. Table 2 displays the titles/genres of the books that were used in the reading class sessions and the topics/genres for the students' in-class writing activities. The table also shows the languages in the books as well as the languages that the students used during compositions.

Table 2

Book Selections for Reading and Topics/Genres of In-Class Writing

	Reading			Writing		
	Title of the book	Genre of the book	Version of the book (language(s) that was used)	Topic of writing	Genre of writing	Language that was being composed
Week 1	Bibimbab (Park, 2008)	Non-fiction (Informational)	Bilingual	My favorite food	Descriptive	Korean
Week 2	Animals (Milet Publishing, 2011)	Non-fiction (Informational)	Bilingual	My favorite animal	Descriptive	Korean
Week 3	Magic vase (Vorhees, 2010)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Bilingual	My wishes	Narrative	Korean
Week 4	Greedy man (Vorhees, 2010)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Bilingual	Why is being greedy bad?	Persuasive	Either Korean or English
Week 5	Lazy man (Vorhees, 2010)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Bilingual	Why is being lazy bad?	Persuasive	Either Korean or English

Table 2 (Continued)

Week 6	Rainbow fish (Pfister, 2012)	Fiction	Korean and English	Letter to the rainbow fish	Persuasive	Korean
Week 7	Rabbit and tiger (Kim, 2004)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Korean	Retelling the story	Narrative	Korean
Week 8	Brother and sister who became sun and moon (Lee, 1996)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Bilingual	Retelling the story	Narrative	Korean
Week 9	Tiger and persimmon (Park, 2002)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Bilingual	Favorite scene	Narrative	Korean
Week 10	Grandmother and tiger (Kim, 2004)	Fiction (Korean folktale)	Korean	Favorite scene	Narrative	Korean
Week 11	My name is Yoon (Recorvits, 2003)	Fiction	Korean and English	Introduce your Korean and English names	Descriptive	Korean
Week 12	The name jar (Choi, 2001)	Fiction	Korean and English	Share your experiences	Journal	Korean
Week 13	Independent Korean story book reading based on students' own choice	Fiction	Korean	Letter to your classmate or teacher	Letter	Either Korean or English
Week 14	Final exam day					

Writing samples. After the students engaged in book discussion each week, they were asked to provide their written responses to the book in Korean. The topics of writing each week varied depending on the story/genre of the books. Sometimes, the students were asked to retell the stories by thinking about the characters, plots, or specific events. Other times, the students

were asked to choose their favorite scene, to address their reasons for their selection, and to expand their thoughts on that part (see Table 2 for the Topics of In-Class Writing). I allowed the class to use both languages when they composed as needed. In other words, I permitted the class to use translanguaging during compositions. The students were given sheets of paper that had lines for writing and spaces for drawing.

The students also were asked to complete two diary entries in Korean, along with drawings, each week as homework. They were given sheets of paper that had spaces for writing and drawing for their diary entries. Each student's writing samples (in-class writing and two diary entries), with drawings and captions, were collected for 14 weeks. A total of 131 writing samples (in-class writing and diaries) were collected from the first-graders.

Student interviews. The four first-grade students individually participated in two semi-structured open-ended interviews with me. The first interview with each student was conducted at the beginning of the study (Weeks 1-2), and the second interview was conducted at the end of the study (Weeks 12-13). For the first interview, I asked approximately 10 interview questions about the students' language use at home (with parents, siblings, peers, etc.), language preferences (either Korean or English) during different language domains (e.g., reading, writing, or speaking) or in different contexts (e.g., at home, school, other public places) as well as their ethnic identity (whether they identified themselves as American, Korean, or Korean-American).

For the second interview, which took place during Weeks 12-13, I asked questions based on what I had observed from the transcripts of the students' class discussions to learn more about their language use patterns. Since the second interviews were conducted in a retrospective way, I brought the students' spoken and written language use data (from the transcript of audio recordings and their writing samples) to the interview with each student to share his/her language

use and to ask specific question about their language use (e.g., Here, did you know the words that you used in the other language? Why did you switch languages here?) Each of the student interviews took about 15-20 minutes and were audio-recorded. When the interviews were conducted in Korean, they were transcribed in Korean, and later translated to English. If the interviews were conducted in English or the student answered in English, I transcribed them in English. I analyzed the students' first interview results before I conducted the first parent interview, and I analyzed the results of the students' second interview before conducting the second parent interview.

For all interviews, I asked the questions in Korean initially (but if they did not understand, I translated the questions into English) and asked them to respond with the language they preferred to use. I not only let the students use both languages freely but also used English myself if needed; thus, the students understood that they were allowed to use English flexibly. Accordingly, their language use during the interviews provided me with additional language data to evaluate their language use/preference and further evidence of their translanguageing.

Informal interviews with the first-graders also occurred naturally during the class sessions as follow-up conversations between the students and me based on what I had observed in the classroom. For example, if one of my students used translanguageing for a word when talking, I asked him/her the reason for why s/he translanguageed the word and whether s/he knew the corresponding word in the other language.

Third-grade classroom data. The teacher (Ms. Joen) in the third-grade classroom taught her students using the government-designated Korean textbook during the first period of her lesson. The book for third-graders also had 10 chapters, and Ms. Joen taught one chapter each week for 50 minutes (approximately from 10:20 a.m. to 11:10 a.m.). Then the third-graders

in her class had recess for 15-20 minutes either outside or inside of the classroom depending on the weather condition. During recess, the students from the first and third-grades played together outside unless either Ms. Joen or I decided not to have outdoor playtime because of bad weather conditions, for instance. After recess, the third-graders participated in reading and writing class sessions by reading Korean books and providing written responses in Korean about their chosen books.

Audio-recordings of the third-grade class. Because I taught my students in my first-grade class at the same time that the third-grade class was meeting, I asked the third-grade teacher (Ms. Joen) to audio-record her class during the reading and writing sessions for 14 weeks so that I could analyze the third-graders' oral language use. After teaching the Korean textbook, Ms. Joen held reading and discussion sessions by using Korean picture books. Sometimes, the third-graders selected a book that they wanted to read from the school library under the teacher's guidance, read it individually, and orally presented the story of their chosen book to the class. Most often, the whole class read the book that Ms. Joen chose by taking turns and participated in a book discussion about the story of the chosen book. The students' oral responses during book discussions were audio recorded for about an hour each week for 14 weeks.

Then the third-graders were asked to provide their written responses to the book that they had read together. Ms. Joen audio-recorded the students' talk when they engaged in writing tasks. Ms. Joen encouraged her students to speak in Korean as much as possible in the classroom.

Writing samples. After the students engaged in book discussions each week, they were asked to provide their written responses to the books in Korean. The weekly writing topics varied depending on the story/genre of the books. The third-graders were sometimes asked to

retell the stories by thinking about the characters, plots, or specific events. Other times, the students were asked to choose their favorite scene, to address their reasons for their selection, and to expand their thoughts on that part. The students were given sheets of paper with lines for writing and spaces for drawing.

The third-graders also were asked to complete two diary entries per week, with drawings, at home as their homework. Their in-class writing samples were collected after class each week for 14 weeks, and their diary notebook, with the two weekly entries, were collected at the end of the school year. A total of 133 writing samples (in-class writing and diaries) were collected for the third-graders.

Teacher interview. The third-grade teacher interview was conducted prior to data collection of the students' book discussions. There was a teacher's orientation day on Saturday (January 30th, 2016) a week before the spring semester began. The 40-minute interview with Ms. Joen was conducted after the teacher's orientation at the Korean Language School. During the interview, I asked her about her curriculum and the instruction that she had provided so far at the Korean Language School to understand her teaching styles and philosophy as a heritage language teacher. I also asked her about her students' (the third-grade participants in this study) language use, performance, and participation in class during the previous year (Fall 2015) when they were in her second-grade class. I learned about her class schedule for the 14 weeks of the study including any materials/resources that she planned to use. I conducted additional informal interviews with her (e.g., before/after class or during recess for 5-10 minutes each week if needed) to understand the context for the students' language data that I received from her class.

Student interviews. The interviews with the third-graders took place twice either before or after school in the first-grade classroom. Each of the third-graders participated in the first

interview at the beginning of the semester (Weeks 3-4) and the second interview at the end of the semester (Weeks 10-11). Similar to the interview with the first-graders, the first interviews with the third-graders were also about their language use, language preferences, as well as how they identified themselves in terms of their ethnic identity. For the second interview, each student received interview questions based on his/her language use from the audio recordings and from his/her writing samples. During the interviews, the third-graders were allowed to provide their responses either in English or Korean based on their preference.

When I conducted the second interviews with the two focal students, I brought their first-grade language data (the analysis of their first-grade oral language use and writing samples) and their third-grade language use data in order to ask additional questions regarding their language use over time. The focal third-graders' interviews took about 15-30 minutes longer than the interviews with the non-focal students, which took about 20-30 minutes. All of the student interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed. I transcribed the audio-recordings in the languages that the students used. If they used Korean, I translated the transcripts into English before analyzing them.

Talk during recess (both first and third-graders). I examined the first and third-grade students' Korean and English language use outside of the classroom by observing them during recess at the Korean Language School. The first and third-graders usually played together on a playground under the guidance of their teachers during recess (for 10-15 minutes). I planned to take fieldnotes on their language use by focusing on specific students on certain days so that after 14 weeks of study, I would capture at least two to three days of each student's oral language use during recess. However, because of bad weather conditions (e.g., snow, rain, low temperature), the students only went outside 5 of the 14 Saturdays. When the students had outside recess, I

took fieldnotes in the languages in which the students spoke. When the classes (both first and third) decided to stay in the classroom and have indoor-recess, Ms. Joen and I audio-recorded the students so that I could capture the students' language use by later listening to the recordings and transcribing them in the language(s) that was used. There were 80-minutes of audio-recording during outside-recess and 250-minutes of audio-recording during indoor-recess (130 minutes in first-grade and 120 minutes in third-grade).

Mothers' interviews. The mothers of the eight students participated in two semi-structured, open-ended interviews with me at the beginning and end of the semester. The initial interview focused on the family members' language use and literacy practices at home as well as the parents' attitudes towards and perspectives on their child(ren)'s English and Korean learning and bilingualism. I wanted to learn how the parents' perspectives, beliefs, and language education philosophy had impacted their child(ren)'s language use, preference, and proficiency. I began the first interview with 20 questions that provided the mothers with an opportunity to share their life events and experiences in the U.S., such as their reasons to come to the U.S., their practices and activities at home, and their general philosophy toward their children's language learning. The first interviews were conducted during the first and second weeks of the study for 60-100 minutes each, depending on the mothers' preferences and availability.

The second interviews were conducted after I completed and analyzed the students' language use data. The second interviews were based on my analysis of the students' oral language use (e.g., the patterns of their translanguaging), their writing samples, the student interview results, and my own observations in the classroom (for the first-graders only). The questions that I asked varied for each mother according to my analysis of her child(ren)'s

language use data. The second interviews were conducted for 60 -180 minutes, depending on the mothers' preferences and availability.

Focal mothers' journals and interviews. Four focal mothers (two for each grade level) agreed to keep journals about their child's Korean and English language use for this study. I asked the focal mothers to keep their journals on three different days (Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday) during the data collection period. I provided the mothers with small notebooks and asked them to record their child's language use at home when s/he participated in activities with his/her family members. I gave the mothers several examples of events/activities that could capture the child's Korean and English language use (e.g., when they read Korean books to their child, when their child Skyped with their grandparents in Korea, when they watched Korean TV programs or movies with their child, or when their child invited their Korean friends to their house). I collected the journals at the end of the semester and had 24-30 journal entries for each mother. I analyzed the content of the journal entries before I conducted the second parent interviews and discussed the interview results during the second interviews with the focal mothers.

The focal mothers' interviews (two in first-grade and two in third-grade) took longer than the interviews with the other participating mothers. I used the four focal mothers' journals as an interview source. During the interview with the third-grade focal mothers, I also brought their child's previous data (writing samples that they composed in their first-grade class and my analysis of their first-grade oral language use) and their third-grade language use data in order to show them and discuss their child's language use and learning trajectory. By sharing those data, I was able to further learn about the mothers' perspectives about their children's Korean language and literacy use and learning while living in the U.S. All the mother interviews were

conducted in Korean and audio-recorded. I transcribed them in Korean first and then translated them to English before analyzing them.

Comparison of the focal third-graders' oral and written language use. For the focal third-graders (Toni and Julie), I previously had collected and analyzed their oral language use data when they were in first-grade for my pilot study (Early Research Paper). I re-visited their first-grade oral language use to compare to their third-grade spoken language use in order to learn about the patterns of their oral language use over time.

I had collected Toni's and Julie's first-grade writing samples for my pilot study but did not analyze them at that time because they were not part of my Early Research Paper. For the current study, I analyzed their first-grade writing samples to compare to their third-grade writing samples in order to document the patterns of their language use during writing over the years. When I was their first-grade teacher, I let the class use English if they needed to do so during their compositions. As anticipated, both Toni and Julie used Korean and English in their writing samples. Therefore, I collected Toni's and Julie's first-grade writing samples that were written both in English and Korean, which are discussed in Findings (Chapter 7).

Data Analysis

The transcripts of audio-recordings and writing artifacts were the main resources for this qualitative study. In order to examine the students' oral language use, I analyzed the transcripts of their class interactions (i.e., their oral responses during book discussions, their self-talk during writing compositions, and the nature of their talk to their peers during recess). For the students' written language use, I analyzed their writing samples, including captions and drawings from their in-class writing and diary entries. I first analyzed each student's language use (both oral and written) by looking at whether s/he used Korean, English, or translanguaging. I computed

the number of the students' utterances that were in Korean, English, and mixed in the two languages, and also computed the number of written sentences that were in Korean, English, and mixed for their written language. I paid attention to their use of translanguaging in order to find the patterns and functions. Then I explored the transcripts of the mothers' interviews and the focal mothers' journals to further learn about how the parents' attitudes had influenced their children's language learning and whether there were socio-cultural influences on the students' language use. For the longitudinal study, the focal third-grade students' first-grade language data were collected during the pilot study. The focal third-graders' language use was compared to their first-grade language use to learn about their language use patterns over time. The students' and mothers' interviews were analyzed to corroborate the students' language use findings. The focal mother's journals were also analyzed for this study.

In order to address Research Question 1 – the first-graders' oral and written language use, I analyzed the patterns of the students' language use (Korean, English, and translanguaging) and organized the functions of their translanguaging into the following four categories: sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural understanding.

The students' use of translanguaging was coded as their sociolinguistic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) when they used languages with the appropriate social meanings for the communication situation. According to Canale and Swain (1980), sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to use language(s) appropriately in different communicative situations and in various social contexts. It indicates the speaker's knowledge of the target language, which involves linguistic awareness when it comes to literacy activities (van Compernelle & Williams, 2012). Mizne (1997) argues that sociolinguistic competence required speakers to have a higher

level of knowledge than linguistic competence. According to her, linguistic competence describes learners' abilities in the grammatical aspects of language, including grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. That is, linguistic competence indicates that the speaker has knowledge and is aware of the target language. However, sociolinguistic knowledge further requires speakers to understand the social situation in which they are speaking; thus, they have to achieve when/how to manipulate their speeches to make them appropriate to the situation. Accordingly, even if they speak with perfect grammar, their speech might not be appropriate or could convey different/unintended meanings in the social situation in which they are speaking. I coded the students' translanguaging as their sociolinguistic competence when they 1) used dual lexicon to reflect their language preference, 2) had quicker lexical access to a particular language, 3) borrowed lexical items for unknown equivalent words, 4) expressed bilingual identities, and 5) had an influence of interlocutors.

The students' use of translanguaging was coded as their metalinguistic awareness when they demonstrated their understanding about their language use and their ability to apply their linguistic knowledge (Bialystok, 1991). Lightsey and Frye (2004) defined children's metalinguistic awareness as their ability to know about their language(s), which includes phonemic awareness (the ability to manipulate individual phonemes), syntactic knowledge (the ability to think about the structure of language) and pragmatic skills (the ability to use language appropriately in social contexts) (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998). According to Bialystok (1991), metalinguistic awareness indicates learners' ability to reflect upon their language use and to manipulate their own language-processing skills. Bialystok (1991) further described metalinguistic awareness not only as the speaker's understanding about their language use but also as writer's ability to apply their linguistic knowledge. I coded their use of translanguaging

as their metalinguistic awareness when they 1) applied their metalinguistic knowledge to create meanings, 2) elaborated on their understanding of concepts, and 3) regulated/controlled their language use.

The students' use of translanguaging was also coded as their metacognitive insight (Meichenbaum, 1985) when they engaged in inner speech. According to Meichenbaum, metacognitive skills indicate the ability to reflect on, evaluate, and manipulate one's cognitive process or thinking. Fogarty (1994) argued that the process of metacognition involves 1) planning before approaching the learning task, 2) monitoring understanding by taking necessary steps to solve problems, 3) evaluating results, and 4) modifying the outcomes as needed. Metacognitive insight is different from metalinguistic awareness because it involves self-thinking processes in which learners can self-assess and self-correct in response to their own evaluation in order to complete the task. That is, students who acquire metacognitive skills can think about their own thinking processes by engaging in inner speech to resolve the problem or perform the task successfully through self-assessing and self-correcting processes (Meichenbaum, 1985). I coded the students' translanguaging as their metacognitive insight when they reflected on and evaluated their own language use through their own cognitive thinking by engaging in inner speech.

Sociocultural awareness indicates the learner's understanding of the societies and cultures of the target language as well as the appropriate contexts in which the language is used (Gumperz, 1979). Students' sociocultural understanding might appear to be similar to the previous definition of sociolinguistic awareness. Yet, sociolinguists focus more on the language aspects, whereas sociocultural knowledge involves students' understanding of cultural aspects (e.g., from their own cultural experiences) in addition to communicative skills and linguistic

knowledge. That is, sociocultural knowledge is regarded as speakers' understanding of culturally specific values, beliefs, and norms when engaging in speech events and performance beyond their verbal skills. I coded the students' translanguaging as their sociocultural understanding when translanguaging practices used culturally familiar or culturally relevant words.

To address Research Question 2 – the family influences on the Korean bilingual first-graders' language use, I analyzed the interview transcripts with the mothers and their journal reports to learn about their socio-cultural influence on their children's language use. The mothers' interview results revealed that the parents' attitudes toward their children's language use and other socio-cultural contexts (e.g., family's immigration status and future residency, role of siblings, amount of interaction with other Korean relatives) appeared to play a pivotal role in their children's language use and learning. The focal parents' journals were also analyzed to understand additional information about the students' home language use and the family's routine or general practices related to their children's language learning.

To address Research Question 3 – the third-graders' oral and written language use, I analyzed the patterns of the third-graders' language use (Korean, English, and translanguaging) and the functions of their translanguaging into the same four categories as I adopted for the first-graders' translanguaging use: sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural understanding.

In order to seek the answer for Research Question 4 – the comparison of the two focal third-graders' oral and written language use to their earlier use as first-graders, I went back to their oral and written language use in their first-grade class that I had collected for my pilot study. When I had analyzed the students' oral language data for my pilot study, I employed code-switching theory by looking at L1 and L2 as separate languages as I presumed that the

students shifted from one language to the other from their two *separate* languages. However, for the current study, I employed translanguaging theory by considering that the students used their *entire* integrated language and linguistic repertoires without separating their languages into L1 and L2. Thus, I revisited their oral language use data and re-analyzed it from a translanguaging perspective in the present study. For this longitudinal study, I compared the patterns of their language use in the past to their current language use so that I could learn about my former students' language use and development over the years.

For Research Question 5 – the family influences on the focal third-graders' longitudinal language use, I analyzed the interview transcripts with the mothers of the focal third-graders to identify any family influences on the students' longitudinal language use and the different patterns in their language use between first and third-grade. The focal parents' journals were also analyzed to understand additional information about the students' home language use and the family's routine or general practices related to their children's language development over the years.

Overall, I used a triangulation method (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003) by investigating all the data (transcripts of the students' classroom interactions, students' writing samples, fieldnotes during recess at the school, mother and student interview results, and focal mothers' journals) in order to “minimize misperception and the invalidity of my conclusions” (Stake, 1996, p. 120). Agar (1996) argued that “an isolated observation cannot be understood unless you understand its relationships to other aspects of the situation in which it occurred” (p. 125). Thus, in line with the researchers' arguments, I tried to have a holistic perspective when analyzing all the data and discussing and reporting the results.

In addition, I used a constant comparative analysis method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) throughout this paper. Glaser and Strauss (1967) claimed that a constant comparative analysis method can be used to identify features of the experience or phenomenon of interest because “[it] compares each incident in the data with other incidents appearing to belong to the same category, exploring their similarities and differences” (Spiggle, 1994, p. 494). By using an inductive constant comparative analysis method, I was able to find patterns of consistencies or differences in the participating focal students’ language use.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 4 addresses Research Questions 1 and 2 by discussing how the first-grade emergent Korean bilingual students utilized their languages to orally communicate and write while attending a Korean HL class. I present the patterns and functions of translanguaging by the first-grade students when they engaged in speaking and writing. The chapter also displays mini-case studies of three of the four first-graders (Joon, Rena, and Nari) to show the parents’ attitudes and responses to their children’s language use.

Chapter 5 that addresses Research Question 3 features the third-grade students’ spoken and written language use in a HL classroom. Similar to the previous chapter, I present an analysis of the students’ Korean and English use and the patterns/functions of their translanguaging by examining their oral and written language.

Chapter 6 addresses Research Questions 4 and 5 by focusing on the focal third-grade students’ longitudinal language use over time. This chapter provides a comparison of the two focal third-graders’ language use (Spring 2016) with their previous language use when they were first-graders (Spring 2014) by examining their oral and written languages. The chapter discusses

the focal mothers' interview results and journals to examine the role of socio-cultural influences on the focal third-grade students' language use over the years.

Chapter 7 concludes the dissertation with a summary of the primary findings and discussion of the findings. I address the limitations of the study, and end the chapter by providing implications for educators of language minority bilingual students in the U.S. and implications for researchers in the bilingual and biliteracy field to suggest directions for future research.

Chapter 4

First-Grade Bilingual Korean Students' Language Use

This chapter addresses Research Question 1 by showing how the first-grade Korean bilingual students utilized their languages to orally communicate and write while attending a Korean HL class. The chapter begins with the students' views about their language use, preferences, and proficiencies. Then the students' actual language use is presented by focusing on their use of translanguageing when they engaged in speaking and writing. The patterns and functions of their translanguageing are identified. Next, Research Question 2 is addressed by displaying mini-case studies of three of the first-graders to learn about their mothers' attitudes and actions towards their children's language use.

First-graders' Views of Their Language Use, Preferences, and Proficiencies

Table 3 shows the first-graders' immigration status and how they self-reported their home language use, language preferences, and language proficiencies. All the students answered that they primarily used Korean with their parents at home, but if they had older siblings, they used English with them. Joon, Yuri, and Rena all had older sibling(s), and reported that they used English with their siblings. On the other hand, Nari reported that she used only Korean with her younger brother.

Table 3

First-graders' Self-Reporting Regarding their Language Use/Preference/Proficiency

	Immigration status	Home language use	Language preference	Language proficiency
Joon	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Mostly Korean with parents; English with older sister	English	Proficient in English and limited in Korean (self-rated 2 out of 10 for Korean; 20 out of 10 for English ^a)

Table 3 (Continued)

Yuri	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Mainly Korean with parents; English with older sister	English	Proficient in English and limited in Korean (self-rated 5 out of 10 for Korean; 10 out of 10 for English)
Rena	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Korean with parents (sometime English); English with two older brothers	English	Proficient in English and limited in Korean (self-rated 3 out of 10 for Korean; 9 out of 10 for English)
Nari	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Korean with parents and younger brother	Korean	Proficient in Korean and English (self-rated 10 out of 10 for Korean; 8/9 out of 10 for English)

Note. ^a When Joon was asked to provide the score for his English proficiency he gave himself 20 out of 10.

In terms of their language preference, three of the students (Joon, Yuri, & Rena) reported that they preferred to speak and write in English because it was easier than Korean. For instance, Joon stated, “영어가 더 좋아 왜냐면 말할때 English easy 해 [I like English (more than Korean) because English is easier when I speak].” In contrast, Nari answered that she preferred to speak and write in Korean. Unlike Nari whose answers about her home language use and preference coincided, the other three students said that they actually preferred to use English although the language they spoke with their parents was primarily Korean.

In terms of language proficiency, the first three students (Joon, Yuri, & Rena) reported that their English skills were many times better than their Korean skills (10, 2, and 3 times, respectively). For instance, Joon, who self-evaluated his English language proficiency 10 times higher than his Korean proficiency, stated, “I am way better in English. 근데 Korean 은 bad 해” [I am way better in English. My Korean is bad].” On the other hand, Nari saw herself as a more fluent speaker in Korean than English. Nari stated during the interview that she liked Korean a

little more than English. However, she also stated that she was strong in English, including reading and writing in English: “근데 영어도 잘한다고 생각해요. 영어 읽기가 좋아. 쓰기도 좋아. 전 영어 읽기 쓰기도 잘해요 [I think that I am good at English, too. I like English reading and writing. I am good at English reading and writing].”

The first three students’ answers (Joon, Yuri, Rena vs. Nari) showed differences in their language proficiency not only from the content of their responses but also from their choices of languages in answering. They used English by translinguaging when they responded to my question, whereas Nari provided all her answers in Korean. That is, their language use corroborated their answers when they identified themselves as proficient English speakers (Joon, Yuri, & Rena) and fluent Korean speaker (Nari). Accordingly, I refer to the first three students (Joon, Yuri, & Rena) as English proficient and Nari as a Korean proficient student throughout this paper. The following section displays the students’ oral language use in their HL classroom and illustrates how their actual language use substantiates their views about their respective language proficiencies.

First-graders’ Oral Language Use in the Classroom

This section presents findings on how the first-graders used their languages to orally communicate in a HL classroom. Although the students were encouraged to speak in Korean, they were allowed to use both languages (Korean and English). Table 4 shows the frequency of first-graders’ oral language use in English and Korean when they engaged in classroom interactions. It illustrates the pattern of language use by each student and his/her translinguaging practices.

Table 4

First-graders’ Oral Language Use in the Classroom

Table 4 (Continued)

	Korean ^a	English ^b	Word-level translanguaging ^c (English words in Korean speech)	Word-level translanguaging ^d (Korean words in English speech)	Total	Frequency of translanguaging at sentence level ^e (Korean to English)	Frequency of translanguaging at sentence level ^f (English to Korean)
Joon	98 (15%)	212 (34%)	292 (46%)	32 (5%)	634 (100%)	45 times	26 times
Yuri	132 (21%)	180 (29%)	280 (45%)	29 (5%)	621 (100%)	31 times	19 times
Rena	87 (21%)	131 (31%)	191 (45%)	13 (3%)	422 (100%)	37 times	17 times
Nari	632 (93%)	14 (2%)	32 (4%)	4 (1%)	682 (100%)	8 times	6 times

^aSpoke exclusively in Korean. ^bSpoke exclusively in English. ^{c-d}Intra-sentential switching within a single utterance. ^{e-f}Inter-sentential switching between the utterances.

*Note: The students' use of sentence-level translanguaging was not counted in the total because the sentences were already included in the first two columns.

As shown in Table 4, the three English proficient students (Joon, Yuri, and Rena) used more English (34%, 29%, 31%, respectively) than Korean (15%, 21%, 21%, respectively) when they talked in class. The three students' spoken language showed the use of translanguaging in their utterances, with their translanguaging occurring at word- and sentence-levels. The English proficient students often initiated speaking in Korean but added English words into their Korean utterances (e.g., “우리 recess 언제 해요?” [When do we have recess?]). They sometimes switched their language use entirely from one language to the other. However, their use of word-level translanguaging (adding English words in Korean speech) was observed more often (46%, 45%, 45%, for Joon, Yuri, and Rena, respectively) than their sentence-level translanguaging.

Interestingly, their use of translanguaging in their oral speech was greater than their oral use in either language. When they used word-level translanguaging in each language, they translanguaged for 51%, 50%, and 48% (for Joon, Yuri, and Rena, respectively).

On the other hand, Nari predominantly used Korean. As shown in Table 4, 93 percent of her utterances were in Korean, and she rarely initiated her speech in English (2%). Only 4 % of her translanguaging was presented at the word level when she inserted English words into her Korean speech. Overall, Nari's use of translanguaging was not just quantitatively but also qualitatively different from those of the English proficient students. In the sections below, close analysis of the three English proficient students' (Joon, Yuri, and Rena) translanguaging in their oral language is presented followed by a close analysis of the Korean proficient student's (Nari) translanguaging.

Functions of translanguaging among the English proficient students. Close analysis of the three English proficient students' oral language use revealed that they engaged in translanguaging practices for 1) sociolinguistic knowledge, 2) metalinguistic awareness, 3) metacognitive insight, and 4) sociocultural understanding. The English proficient students' oral translanguaging primarily occurred when they added English words or phrases to their Korean speech, whereas when they spoke in English, they rarely used Korean in their English speech.

English proficient bilingual students' sociolinguistic competence. The English proficient students' oral language use indicated that when they translanguaged, they demonstrated their sociolinguistic competence as bilinguals. I define sociolinguistic competence as the speaker's ability to use languages with the linguistic knowledge and appropriate social meanings for the communication situation. There were five subcategories when the students translanguaged in this area: 1) bilingual's flexible use of dual lexicon to reflect their language

preference, 2) quicker lexical access to a particular language, 3) the borrowing of lexical items for unknown equivalent words, 4) the expression of bilingual identities, and 5) the influence of interlocutors. The majority of the English proficient students' translanguaging functioned as sociolinguistic competence (49%, 48%, 57% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively) out of the four different functions (see Figure 1 in Appendix A). Although their uses of translanguaging for sociolinguistic functions were observed at the word- and sentence-levels, word-level translanguaging was mainly observed in their speech.

Excerpt 1 shows an example of how Yuri used dual lexicon in her speech to demonstrate her language preference. Yuri initiated the conversation in Korean (turn 1), but she used both Korean and English in the following statements (turns 3 & 5). (Brackets indicate the English translation. Code-mixing is underlined in the English translation.)

Excerpt 1. Flexible use of bilingual lexicon to demonstrate language preference

1. Yuri: 내 친구가 햄스터 두 개 있는데 한개는 너무 많이 먹어서 똥똥해 [I have a friend who has two hamsters; one of them is fat because he eats too much.]
2. T: 다른거는? [What about the other one?]
3. Yuri: 다른거는 skinny 해. Good food 먹어서. 근데 똥똥한 애는 bad food 먹어서 ice cream. [The other one is skinny because he eats good food. But the fat hamster eats bad food like ice cream.]
4. T: 햄스터가 아이스크림 먹을 수 있어? [Can hamsters eat ice cream?]
5. Yuri: 이거는 fake story 예요. ice cream, cookies, chips 많이 먹으면 fat 돼요 [This is a fake story. If you eat too much ice cream, cookies, and chips, you will be fat.]

Although Yuri used English words in her Korean speech, during the interview she revealed that she knew all the corresponding words in Korean. The reason that Yuri used the English words

was not because she did not know how to say them in Korean, but because she reported that she preferred to use the English words. Yuri stated that “어떨 때는 나는 영어로 얘기하는게 더 좋아요. 제가 English 로 많이 말하는 words 같은 것들은” [Sometimes I prefer speaking in English for some words, such as the words that I often use in English].

Excerpt 2 below shows Joon’s use of translanguaging when he had quicker lexical access to English. Joon summarized the story of the book before the class read it because he already knew the story. Joon inserted several English words into his Korean speech.

Excerpt 2. Quicker lexical access in a more proficient language

나 이 story 알아. 이거 어떤 magic person 나오고 one wish 할 수 있어. Wish 하면 없어져 forever.

[I know this story. There is a magic person, and someone can make one wish. If he makes a wish, it (the magic person) disappears forever.]

Joon demonstrated during the interview that he knew all the words in Korean that he had used in English. When Joon was asked why he used them in English, he answered that “the English words came to my mind first.” Thus, for Joon, it appears that the reason he chose the English words was because he had quicker lexical access to them than the Korean words.

Excerpt 3 below displays Rena’s translanguaging when she borrowed lexical items from English for English loan words and words that she did not know. Although Rena followed the Korean sentence structure, she spoke all the nouns in English. It is important to note that the nouns were English loan words (e.g., lemonade, popcorn), Sino-Korean words (e.g., field trip), which originated from Chinese characters and derived mainly from literary Chinese, and specific English lexical items that do not have Korean equivalents (e.g., book buddy). (*Italics are the words Rena does not know in Korean*)

Excerpt 3. Borrowing lexical items from English for English loan words and unknown Korean words

나 어제 movie theater 갔는데 lemonade 랑 popcorn 먹었어요. Park 도 가고 book buddy 랑 field trip 갔어요. Lydia 예요. reading writing 하고 Field trip 가서 every Thursday 에 해요.

[Yesterday I went to the movie theater and drank lemonade and ate popcorn. I went to the park with my book buddy. (Her name is) Lydia. We do reading and writing when we go on a field trip every Thursday.]

During the interview with Rena, she demonstrated that she knew all the English words in Korean except for the words for “book buddy” and “field trip.” Thus, Rena appeared to use the English equivalents for words that she knew in Korean like Yuri and Joon did in the previous excerpts. However, for the words without Korean equivalents, Rena utilized her English vocabulary knowledge to complete her utterances in Korean, which is considered a strategy unique to bilinguals.

Excerpt 4 shows Yuri’s use of translanguaging when she summarized the bilingual version of a Korean folktale (written in Korean and English) that was discussed in class. Yuri inserted English at the word level into the Korean syntax. However, close analysis also showed that Yuri’s sentence-level translanguaging (i.e., her use of English sentences) were the dialogues spoken by the main characters in the book. Yuri, who chose to read the book in English and retell the story in Korean, switched the language into English when she directly referred to the main characters’ dialogues, which were delivered in English in the book. This example illustrates that Yuri was able to flexibly move across languages to express her bilingual identity through her language choice.

Excerpt 4. Expression of bilingual identity

엄마가 어디가는데 호랑이 만나서 호랑이가 “if you give me rice cake, I would not eat you” 근데 rice cake 먹고 엄마도 먹고 엄마 옷 입고 집 갔는데 아이들이

호랑이한테 “slide your hands so that we can see through the door.” 그래서 아이들이 run away 했어. 그리고 tree 로 climb 하고 호랑이가 “how did you get there?” 했어.

[The mom met the tiger when she went somewhere. The tiger told the mom that “if you give me rice cake, I would not eat you.” But the tiger ate the rice cake and the mom. He wore the mom’s clothes and went to her house, where her children lived. The children told the tiger to “slide your hands so that we can see through the door.” When they saw his hand, they ran away. They climbed the tree and the tiger asked them, “How did you get there?”]

Excerpt 5 provides another example of how the students expressed their bilingual identity.

Rena visited Korea during the data collection period of this study, and her mother enrolled her in an elementary school in Korea for a month. In turn 1, Rena spoke in Korean with English word-level translanguaging to share her feelings and emotions about attending the Korean school. However, in response to turn 2, when I used Korean to praise her English, Rena replied in English. Her sentence-level translanguaging (turn 3) indicated that she had reacted in the language for which she was given a compliment. Rena’s use of translanguaging in turn 3 appeared to function as a medium for conveying her identity as a bilingual who is proficient in English.

Excerpt 5. Presenting bilinguals’s dual identities

1. Rena: 나 한국갈때 진짜 부끄러웠어. 한국에서 school 갔을때 나 안가고 싶었어. 나 worry 했어. 친구들이 laugh at me 했어 나 Korean 잘못해서 [I was very shy when I

was in Korea. When I went to a school in Korea, I didn't want to go. I worried a lot, and the classmates laughed at me because I didn't speak Korean well.]

2. T: 그런데 규린이는 영어 잘하잖아. 그럼 영어 알려주고 한국말 배우면 되지. [But you are good at English. Then, you could teach them English and learn Korean from them.]

3. Rena: Yes, I am good at English. I teach my friend in my class.

The English proficient students also responded to the interlocutors' use of translanguaging, demonstrating another sociolinguistic function. Excerpt 6 shows how my use of translanguaging (as the teacher) influenced Rena to switch her language in her following utterance. Rena initially stated that she had helped a Korean classmate at her American school because the classmate was a recent immigrant from Korea and had limited English proficiency. When I asked a question by translanguaging the words "English reading" (turn 1), Rena responded by using the same words in English (turn 2). Also, when I restated my question in English by translanguaging (turn 4) after asking it in Korean (turn 3), Rena responded to my question in English (turn 5).

Excerpt 6. Interlocutor's influence on translanguaging

1. T: 아 친구가 영어 책 잘 못 읽어서 그럼 English Reading 도와줘? [Oh, your friend is not good at reading in English, so do you help her with English reading?]
2. Rena: 응. 나 매일 내 친구 English reading help 해줘. [Yes, I help her with English reading everyday.]
3. T: 어떻게 도와줘? [How do you help her?]
4. T: How do you help her?
5. Rena: Sometimes she picks up English book and I help her.

Excerpt 7 shows a different type of translanguaging pattern related to the interlocutor's influence on bilingual children's translanguaging. After the class read the book *The Greedy Man* in Korean, Joon shared how he was greedy by inserting several English words into his Korean speech (turn 1). When I asked him if he knew how to say the translanguaged words in Korean (turn 3), he answered that they ("share," "chocolate," and "sleep over") were the same in Korean. Joon was correct because "chocolate" is an English loan word. However, the other English words or phrases that he used when speaking in Korean are clearly English ("share" and "sleep over"). In turn 5, Joon explained that he considered them to be Korean because his mother, who primarily spoke in Korean, used the English words in her Korean speech. This example indicates that a parent's language use as an interlocutor can influence the child's language use even when the parent isn't present.

Excerpt 7. Influence of an interlocutor who isn't present

1. Joon: 엄마가 누나랑 같이 share 하라고 했는데 chocolates 주고 chocolates 줬는데 sleep over 할 때 내가 다 혼자 먹을라고 했어. [My mom told me that I should share chocolates with my sister and friends. When my mom gives me chocolates when I sleep over with friends, I try to eat them all alone.]
2. T: share, chocolate, sleep over 한글로 뭐라고 하는지 알고 있어? [Do you know how to say share, chocolate, and sleep over in Korean?]
3. Joon: 그거 다 한국말이야. share 는 share. Chocolate 은 chocolate. sleep over 는 sleep over. [They are all Korean. Share is share. Chocolate is chocolate. Sleep over is sleep over.]
4. T: 정말? 왜? Share 랑 sleep over 영어 아니야? [Really? Why? Aren't the words share and sleep over English?]

5. Joon: 왜냐면 나 엄마가 share, sleep over 라고 해 한글로 말할때 [Because my mom says share and sleep over in English when she speaks in Korean.]

The following example in Excerpt 8 displays how Yuri translanguaged by considering her interlocutors' different language use during recess when she was playing a card game with Hana (the first-grader who did not participate in the study). While they were playing using English, I intervened in their conversation by asking a question in Korean. Before my interruption, Yuri was speaking to Hana in English, but she answered my question in Korean (turn 2). Right after her answer, she translanguaged into English again to talk to Hana (turn 3). But, Yuri switched her language to Korean again to respond to my question (turn 5). After Yuri shuffled the cards, she talked to Hana using English (turn 6), but explained the instructions of the card game to me by translanguaging into Korean (turn 7). Then Yuri switched to English again when her audience changed to Hana (turn 8). The analysis revealed that Yuri chose English when speaking to Hana and Korean when speaking to me by flexibly using her two languages. Yuri's flexible language use suggests that Korean and English are part of Yuri's language repertoires that she can freely employ.

Excerpt 8. Considering different interlocutors

1. T: 혜윤이랑 현하랑 카드놀이하는거예요? [Are you two playing the card game?]
2. Yuri: 네. 근데 우리 다른 게임해요. [Yes, but we are playing a different card game.]
3. Yuri: (to Hana) Now you got a seven.
4. T: 왜? 세븐 가졌어? 설명해 줄 수 있어? [Why did you give her a seven card? Can you explain it to me?]
5. Yuri: 왜냐하면... 다시 보여줄게요. [Because, I will show you again].

6. Yuri: Okay, Hana. Let's start over then. I will give you 10 cards now...

...

7. Yuri: (to me) 선생님, 이렇게 열개 카드 주는거예요. King 은 아무거나 할 수 있어요. 그래서 여기 뽐아돼요...[Teacher, she (Hana) will be given 10 cards.

King can be anything. So I will put it here...]

8. Yuri: (to Hana) You got A. So you can only switch. This is already opened.

English proficient bilingual students' metalinguistic awareness. Metalinguistic awareness refers to speakers' understanding about their language use and their ability to apply their linguistic knowledge (Bialystok, 1991). The English proficient students' use of translanguaging as a metalinguistic awareness function occurred when they 1) applied their metalinguistic knowledge to create meanings, 2) elaborated on their understanding of concepts, and 3) regulated/controlled their language use. The English proficient students' translanguaging sometimes functioned as metalinguistic awareness (32%, 36%, 27% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively), and their uses of translanguaging for metalinguistic awareness were mainly observed at the word-level (see Figure 1 in Appendix A).

Excerpt 9 shows Joon's use of translanguaging to distinguish between two English words (rabbit and bunny) and to create a new meaning of a word, which shows his metalinguistic awareness. In turn 3, Joon reacted to Rena's answer to my question by stating that bunny and rabbit are not the same because of their different appearances in terms of size. Joon's metalinguistic insight seemed to emerge when he heard the two words. In order to corroborate that his idea made sense, Joon pointed out another example in terms of similar looking animals having different names (turn 4). Joon tried to come up with a new meaning of the word by adding adjectives "small" and "cute" in English and eventually created a new word for bunny

(baby rabbit) in Korean (turn 6). The process of his thinking, which involved the translanguaging practice, suggested that Joon was using his metalinguistic awareness by applying his previous knowledge to create a new meaning of the word in Korean.

Excerpt 9. Application of prior knowledge to create a new meaning

1. T: 여기 이야기에서 누가 꾀를 낸거야? [Who made a trick in this story?]
2. Rena: 토끼. Bunny. [Rabbit. Bunny.]
3. Joon: Bunny 아니야. 토끼는 rabbit 이야. Rabbit 은 크고 Bunny 는 작고 cute 해 [It is not bunny. Rabbit is rabbit. Rabbit is bigger, but bunny is smaller and cute.]
...
4. Joon: It is similar to crocodile and alligator. They look the same, but I know that they are different. I know that their teeth are different. Crocodile has a longer body and mouth. Alligator is shorter and fatter...
5. T: 그럼 bunny 는 한글로 뭐라고 하면 돼? [Then, how can we call bunny in Korean?]
6. Joon: bunny 는 small and cute 토끼. 그럼 애기토끼 [Bunny is a small and cute rabbit. Then it is a baby rabbit].

Excerpt 10 shows that Yuri elaborated on her understanding of concepts by demonstrating her metalinguistic awareness. I checked on whether Yuri knew how to say the words that she answered in English (“grain”, “dairy”, and “protein” in turns 1, 3, & 5 respectively). Yuri did not provide the equivalent words in Korean, but was able to use her metalinguistic awareness to provide the examples of the food categories (turns 2, 4, & 6).

Excerpt 10. Metalinguistic awareness to understand the concept

1. T: Grain 한국말로 뭐라고 해? [How do you say grain in Korean?]
2. Yuri: 몰라요. 근데 it's like rice and bread. 쌀 이랑 빵 [I don't know. But, it's like

rice and bread. Rice and bread]

3. T: 그럼 Dairy 는 알고 있어? [Then do you know dairy in Korean?]
4. Yuri: Dairy 는 우유랑 아이스크림 그리고 요거트 [Dairy is Milk, ice cream, and yogurt.]
5. T: Protein 은 한국말로 뭐라고 할 수 있지? [How can you say protein in Korean?]
6. Yuri: meat 같은거. [Like meat.]

Excerpt 11 shows another translanguaging practice that also exhibits Yuri's metalinguistic awareness (see Excerpt 1 for the entire conversation). When Yuri responded to my question, she used the English word ("fake story") with high pitch (turn 2). She seemed to purposefully choose the English word in order to create her own meaning by emphasizing it over her use of Korean. Also, her enhanced verbal communication (e.g., laughing) indicates that she was playing with languages. It seemed that Yuri's metalinguistic insight through translanguaging was used to distinguish a literal meaning from an implied meaning. Yuri's translanguaging practice in this example appeared to serve the purpose of emphasizing the chosen lexical items in English by regulating her languages to deliver her intended message.

Excerpt 11 (Lines 4-5 from Excerpt 1). Regulation of language to deliver message

1. T: 햄스터가 아이스크림 먹을 수 있어? [Can hamsters eat ice cream?]
2. Yuri: 이거는 fake story 예요. 햄스터도 ice cream, cookies, chips 많이 먹으면 fat 돼요 (laughs). [This is a fake story. If hamsters eat too much ice cream, cookies, chips, they will be fat.]

Excerpt 12 displays part of the class book discussion after the students read the book *The Greedy Grandmother*. I asked the class whether they remembered the three wishes that the

greedy grandmother (the main character) had in the story (turn 1). Joon provided correct answers for the two wishes in Korean by engaging in word-level translanguaging for the words “jewelry” and “pretty” (turn 4). But, he switched his language entirely to English when he provided the answer for the third wish, and his answer was not true based on the story in the book. His following statement “I am kidding” and his nonverbal communication – laughing (turn 4) – indicate that Joon was trying to make fun by exaggerating the story. It seems that Joon translanguaged when he had different purposes in his speech. His initial response, which was in Korean, had the purpose of presenting the correct answer to my question. On the other hand, he used English when he made a joke rather than transmitting correct information. The transition in his language use suggests that Joon was able to regulate his two languages as a metalinguistically cognizant bilingual.

Excerpt 12. Controlling language choices to make a joke

1. T: 그지? 그럼 여기서 소원 세 개 뭐했는지 기억해? [Do you all remember the three wishes in this story?]
2. Joon: 먼저 jewelry 많이 가지는거랑 pretty 하게 하는거 [First, she wanted to have a lot of jewelry and to be pretty.]
3. T: 그렇지. 보석 많이 가지고 예뻐지게 해달라 했지? 그리고 또 하나가 뭐였지? [Yes, he is right. She wanted to have lots of jewelry and wished to be pretty. Do you remember the last one?]
4. Joon: Um.. she wanted to have one hundred dollars. No, one million dollars. I am kidding (laughs).

English proficient bilingual students’ metacognitive insight. Bilingual children use their metacognitive skills when they reflect on and evaluate their cognitive thinking by engaging

in inner speech. The use of translanguaging for this function was mostly discovered when the students engaged in private speech. The English proficient students' uses of translanguaging for metacognitive insight were occasionally observed (10%, 7%, 10% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively), and they were found at the sentence-level only as the students entirely switched their language (mainly from Korean to English) when engaging in self-talk (see Figure 1 in Appendix A).

Excerpt 13 shows how Yuri consciously articulated her self-talk by engaging in a translanguaging strategy. During class discussion, when a student talked about a television program, I asked the class what it was about since I did not know it (turn 1). Yuri explained it to me by using Korean and tried to show the cartoon images by searching on my cellular phone (turn 2). While searching for the information on the cellular phone, Yuri translanguaged entirely into English to talk to herself (turn 3). Then she went back to Korean to talk to me (turn 4). Her inner speech appeared to indicate the process of internalization as she moved from interpersonal dialogues with me to intrapersonal speech to herself. This form of internalized and self-directed dialogue, which involved translanguaging, illustrated her bilingual metacognitive insight.

Excerpt 13. Inner speech using translanguaging

1. T: 그게 무슨 프로그램이야? [Is Wild Kratts a program? What is it?]
2. Yuri: 그거 cartoon 같은건데 선생님 이걸로 search 해서 보여줄게요. [It is like a cartoon. Teacher, I will show you by searching for it on your cell phone.]
3. Yuri: (To herself) I need to type something here. (Yuri finds the program on the internet by using T's cellular phone)
4. Yuri: 선생님 이거가 그 프로그램이에요. [Teacher, this is the program.]

A similar finding was observed in the following excerpt when Yuri again engaged in

private speech. I asked the class what they were learning during the science class in their American school. Yuri responded in Korean that she had learned about the human body. In responding to my follow-up question about what she had learned about the human body (turn 3), Yuri translanguaged into English and asked herself a question by engaging in self-talk (turn 4).

Excerpt 14. Self-talk to herself using translanguaging

1. T: 학교에서 science 시간에는 뭐 배워? [What did you learn during the science class in your American school?]
2. Yuri: 저는 몸 [I learned about the body.]
3. T: 몸? 사람 몸에 대해? 뭐 배웠는지 기억나? [Body? About human body? Do you remember what you have learned about?]
4. Yuri: (to herself) Um... What did I learn about? Let me see...

Joon demonstrated a very similar pattern of translanguaging in Excerpt 15. When Yuri replied to my question about why the character was called the “lazy man,” Joon provided his own response in English (turn 2). It was not clear whether he was talking to himself or to others. Yet, my subsequent question and Joon’s response indicate that he engaged in private speech. When I asked him what he had said (turn 3), he admitted that he had said something to himself (turn 4). Joon’s response demonstrates that he engaged in private speech by using English, which appeared to be a more comfortable language for him.

Excerpt 15. Private speech to himself using English

1. Yuri: 왜 나면 lazy 해서요 [Because he is lazy.]
2. Joon: (to himself) I know a person who is lazy like the lazy man. He is in Pre-K (a classroom in his American school).
3. T: (to Joon) 뭐라고 했어? [What did you say?]

4. Joon: 아니예요. 그냥 나한테 말했어요. [Nothing. I just said something to me.]

English proficient bilingual students' sociocultural knowledge. The English proficient students' sociocultural understanding seemed to play an essential role in their use of translanguaging. These translanguaging practices emerged when they used culturally familiar or relevant words. The students' translanguaging were observed when they inserted Korean words in English speech (word-level) and switched their speech from English to Korean (sentence-level). In other words, when the students' translanguaging occurred as a function of their sociocultural knowledge, the use of Korean added meanings to their English speech. Yet, their uses of translanguaging for this function were rarely observed (9%, 9%, 6% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively; see Figure 1 in Appendix A).

Example 1 illustrates the students' use of Korean translanguaging in their English speech when referring to culturally appropriate names for close relations. In lines A-C, each student used a Korean word when s/he referred to his/her family members. The Korean words that s/he used were "mom, dad, sister, grandmother, and aunt." Analysis of the interview data showed that the students mostly referred to their family members in Korean. For instance, Joon stated that "I think I always say 엄마, 아빠, 누나, 왜냐하면 나 어렸을 때 부터 그랬어" [I think I always say mom, dad, and sister, because I have called them that way when I was very young.] Joon seemed to understand that referring to his family members by using Korean was his natural habit. It appeared that even for English proficient students, they were more likely to choose to use the Korean words when they referred to their family members. (Bold font indicates the words that the students code-mixed in Korean).

Example 1. First-graders' use of Korean words for culturally appropriate referents

- A. Joon: I am going to go to Chicago next week with my family, 엄마, 아빠, 누나. 그래서 할머니 visit 할거야. [I am going to Chicago next week with my family, **my mom, dad, and sister.** We are going to visit my **grandmother's** house].
- B. Yuri: I always wish 나 언니 won't have a cat allergy. [I always wish **my sister** won't have a cat allergy].
- C. Rena: I will see 고모 today. She likes me a lot... [I will see **my aunt** today. She likes me a lot...].

Examples 2-4 display how each student translanguaged into Korean when stating the words that were related to their Korean language learning. Example 2 shows that Rena used the word “Korean Language School” in Korean in her English speech. Since the Korean word is the name of the local school, it is more commonly used among children who attend the school. However, it is interesting to see that she particularly chose to use it in Korean when she spoke in English.

Example 2. Korean translanguaging for a culturally based referent

Rena: For the next 한글 학교, my mom already signed up 한글 학교 for me but she cancelled it.

[For the next **Korean Language School**, my mom already signed me up for the **Korean Language School**, but she cancelled it.]

Similarly, Joon in Example 3 used the Korean word for “Korean dictation test” while talking in English. This is the word that the students and I used every class session since there was a Korean dictation test at the beginning of the class. Thus, Joon appeared to be more familiar with using the word in Korean.

Example 3. Joon's Korean translanguaging for a culturally based referent

Joon: I didn't practice 받아쓰기 for this week because I had a lot of homework.

[I didn't practice **Korean dictation test** for this week because I had a lot of homework.]

Example 4 shows how Yuri used the Korean word “honorifics” when she spoke in English. The word “honorifics” is not commonly used in English. Hence, when Yuri referred to the word, she used it in Korean. Her following statement demonstrates that she also knew when to use Korean honorifics, which exhibits her sociocultural knowledge regarding the Korean language.

Example 4. Yuri's Korean translanguaging for the culturally based referent

Yuri: When I was in kindergarten, I learned 존댓말. So I know it. We have to use
존댓말 to older people.

[When I was in kindergarten, I learned **Korean honorifics**. So I know it. We have to use
Korean honorifics to older people].

Another set of examples in Examples 5-7 also displays how the students used Korean words in their English speech when referring to Korean cultural activities. In Example 5, Joon uttered his responses in English and translanguaged into Korean when he stated the Korean activity that he practiced, Taekwondo. He went back to the English language in his following speech but inserted Korean words for the names of Taekwondo moves and the place where instruction was given. He also used the Korean word for “teacher.” His Taekwondo teacher was Korean, and the instruction was given in Korean. The latter explains why Joon used the words for kicks and breaking in Korean because those were the words that he often heard from his Korean teacher. Thus, Joon naturally translanguaged when he referred to the terms that are related to the Korean activity of Taekwondo.

Example 5. Joon's sociocultural knowledge through translanguaging

Joon: I can run fast way too fast. 태권도 도해. Actually, I know how to do 발차기 and 격파. I practice whenever I go to 태권도장 with 선생님.

[I can run fast way too fast. **I do Taekwondo too**. Actually, I know how to do **kicks** and **breaking**. I practice whenever I go to **taekwondojo** (the name of place where instruction is given) with **my teacher**].

In Example 6, Yuri explained about a traditional Korean game. It appeared that Yuri instinctively replied in English when her classmates said something about the game. Then she began to give instructions for the game in English. Yuri occasionally translanguaged into Korean when referring to the particular terms that are used in the game. This example displays that although Yuri explained the rules of the Korean game in English (which appeared to be a more proficient language for her), she used Korean when referring to the specific terms that are culturally specific and distinctive as a traditional Korean game. That is, this example illustrates that Yuri was using her sociocultural knowledge through translanguaging, which demonstrates that she was socioculturally competent.

Example 6. Yuri's sociocultural knowledge through translanguaging

Yuri: I know! I learned how to do 윷놀이. There are four sticks and you throw down. They are like 도개걸윷모.

[I know! I learned how to do **Yut Nori** (Korean traditional board game). There are four sticks and you throw them down. They are like **Do, Ge, Geol, Yut, Mo** (the name of the particular throw)].

Similarly, Example 7 below shows Rena's use of translanguaging in her utterances. During recess, Rena suggested that the class participate in the Korean game "The rose of Sharon blooms again." Since the name of the game is in Korean, she translanguaged into Korean to

state the name of the game. Her following utterance also shows the same pattern. She spoke in English but inserted the Korean word for “슬래” (the person who is it during tag). It was revealed that Rena learned this game from her Korean family members and had played it with them. Thus, Rena instinctively chose the Korean words during the play. Similar to the previous example, Rena was using her sociocultural knowledge through translanguaging in order to deliver information about the Korean game as a socioculturally proficient bilingual.

Example 7. Rena’s sociocultural knowledge through translanguaging

Rena: Why don’t we play “무궁화 꽃이 피었습니다”? We need 슬래 ... [Why don’t we play “**The Rose of Sharon Blooms Again**”? We need **a person who tags others.**]

Functions of translanguaging by the Korean proficient student. There were a few times when Nari, the Korean proficient student, used translanguaging in her oral speech. Her use of translanguaging displayed that she was sociolinguistically competent. Nari used translanguaging when she 1) repeated others’ words that were in English and 2) used words that do not exist in Korean.

Using English when repeating what others said in English. Excerpt 16 displays evidence of Nari’s use of translanguaging by inserting the English word “artist” into her Korean speech (turn 2). However, close analysis displays that Nari uttered the English word after she listened to the word in my speech. That is, I initiated the addition of the English word when I spoke in Korean, and Nari used the same English word in her response.

Excerpt 16. Translanguaging for code alignment by repeating the teacher’s word

1. T: 그림을 너무 잘 그리는데 artist 됐으면 좋겠어. [I hope you would be an artist since you are really good at drawing.]

2. Nari: 근데 엄마는 artist 말고 선생님 되래요. [But, my mom wants me to be a teacher instead of being an artist.]

Similarly, in the following excerpt, Nari uttered the English word “strong” in her Korean speech (turn 3). “Strong” was the word that Yuri had said in English before Nari spoke (turn 1).

Excerpt 17. Translanguaging for code alignment by repeating the peer’s word

1. Yuri: 호랑이가 이겼어요 왜냐하면 호랑이는 strong 해서 [Tiger won because the tiger was strong.]
2. T: 근데 여기서는 할머니가 왜 이겼지? [But why did the grandmother win in this story?]
3. Nari: 호랑이가 strong 한데 할머니가 똑똑해서 이겼어 [Although the tiger was strong, the grandmother won because she was smart.]

Analysis of Nari’s oral language data revealed that she tended to repeat English words in her Korean speech after she had heard others using the same words, but she knew the Korean equivalents. For example, Nari verbally used the same words (“artist” and “strong”) in Korean in different communicative events; she spoke “나는 커서 화가가 되고 싶어요” [I want to be an artist in the future] and “호랑이는 더 힘세요. 원래는 이겨요” [The tiger is stronger than the grandmother, thus it is taken for granted that the tiger wins]. The underlined words “화가” and “힘세요” in her Korean speech are the Korean words for “artist” and “strong.” Although Nari did not seem to ever use English without someone else using it first, it appeared to be easy for Nari, as a bilingual, to unconsciously repeat the English words when she heard them because she knew them in both languages.

Using English words that do not exist in Korean. Example 8 presents Nari’s individual utterance when she inserted English words while speaking in Korean. In line A, Nari read aloud a book to the class. When the first passage introduces the main character’s name “Mary,” Nari stated that “Mary 랑 Saint Mary 랑 똑같애요 [Mary is the same as Mary in Saint Mary].” As shown, she chose to use English for the words “Mary” and “Saint Mary”. Similarly, in line B, Nari used English for the name of the academy that she went to. Using English seemed to be inevitable in these utterances since the words are proper nouns that indicate specific people and place. In line C, Nari used the English word “playdate” in her utterance, but there is no corresponding word for “playdate” in Korean. Example 8 displays examples of Nari using English proper nouns that do not have equivalent words in Korean, which indicate that Nari, as a bilingual who was fluent in Korean but also proficient in English, was utilizing her English vocabulary knowledge when necessary while speaking in Korean.

Example 8. Translanguaging into English for proper nouns that do not exist in Korean

- A. Mary 랑 Saint Mary 랑 똑같애요. [Mary is the same as Mary in Saint Mary]
- B. 어제 친구들이랑 I-Power 갔어요. [I went to I-Power to learn gymnastics.]
- C. 친구랑 playdate 하는데 친구가 늦어서 오래 기다렸어요. [I waited for a long time since my friend was late for our playdate.]

In sum, during class, Nari predominantly used Korean except for the two cases when she repeated another’s language and when she used words that only exist in English, including English proper nouns.

However, Nari showed a different pattern in her oral language use during recess. Excerpt 18 shows that Nari predominantly used English when communicating with her classmates during recess. In line 1, Nari initiated a question in English to ask the class if there was anyone who

wanted to smell her crayons. As shown in line 4, Nari continued to use English when interacting with her English proficient peers.

Excerpt 18. Communicating with English proficient peers by using English

1. Nari: Who want to smell it?
2. Yuri: I want to. Smells like a banana!
3. Rena: Smells like coffee this one. Oh my gosh. Awesome!
4. Nari: Do you want to smell the orange one here?

The different pattern of Nari's language use implies that Nari differentiated her use of language depending on the settings (in class vs. out of class). During the interview, Nari explained that she not only understood that she was encouraged to use Korean during the class, but also considered her interlocutors when choosing her own language to communicate:

저는 다른 친구들이 영어로 다 말하는거 알아서 저도 애들이랑 영어로 얘기하고 싶어요. 그런데 수업때는 한글로 말해야 해요. [I know that other kids use English

only. I want to talk to them using English. But in class, I know that I have to use Korean].

Since Nari demonstrated in her response that she knew that her classmates were more fluent in English than Korean, she translanguaged into English to conform to a principle of *code alignment* (Sayer, 2011). Since Nari appeared to understand when and how to utilize her language resources depending on the different context and interlocutors, her use of translanguaging appeared to function as her sociolinguistic competence and metalinguistic awareness. Overall, half of Nari's translanguaging functioned as sociolinguistic knowledge (50%), and she also engaged in translanguaging for her metalinguistic awareness (28%), metacognitive insight (14%), and sociocultural knowledge (8%) (see Figure 1 in Appendix A).

First-graders' Language Use When Writing

The first-graders' writing samples were also analyzed focusing on their language use as well as patterns and functions of their translanguageing. All four students used much less translanguageing when writing than they did when orally communicating. Table 5 shows each student's language use in their written language throughout the writing samples.

Table 5

Language Use in First-grade Students' Writing Samples

	Total number of writing samples	Korean only sentence	English only sentence	Word- level translanguaging (English words in Korean sentences)	Word- level translanguaging (Korean words in English sentences)	Total	Translan- guaging at sentence level ^a (Korean to English)	Translan- guaging at sentence level ^b (English to Korean)
Joon	33	145 (76%)	5 (2%)	39 (21%)	3 (1%)	192	0	0
Yuri	31	160 (74%)	11 (5%)	44 (20%)	2 (1%)	217	7	0
Rena	29	80 (58%)	15 (11%)	40 (29%)	3 (2%)	138	12	4
Nari	38	205 (99.5%)	0	1 (0.5%)	0	206	0	0

Note. The numbers of the students' written sentences were counted in the table. ^aThe frequency of the first-graders' sentence-level translanguageing from Korean to English. ^bThe frequency of the first-graders' sentence-level translanguageing from Korean to English.

The three English proficient students were more likely to stay in Korean when they wrote, compared to when they talked. Joon used Korean 76% of the time when writing, whereas he used Korean only 15% of the time when he spoke. Similarly, Yuri's writing samples show that she composed 74% using Korean, but used only 21% of Korean when she spoke. Rena's writing samples display that she used Korean relatively less (58%) than the two other students (Joon and Yuri), but compared to her oral language use (21%), Rena also used more Korean

when writing. The three English proficient students rarely provided Korean word-level translanguageing in their English sentences (1%, 1%, 2%, respectively). Yet, they occasionally inserted English words into their Korean sentences (21%, 20%, 29%, respectively).

Meanwhile, Nari was the only student who produced almost all of her written responses in Korean. As displayed in Table 5, Nari provided only one English word throughout her 38 writing pieces with 206 sentences. Nari's writing samples also show that her use of English in her writing was less often (0.5%), compared to her use of English in her oral language communication (7%).

The translanguageing functions characteristic of the English proficient students' writing. The English proficient students' use of translanguageing was less observed in their writing than their oral language data; however, word-level translanguageing was still found in the students' writing samples (20%, 21%, and 29% for Joon, Yuri, and Rena, respectively). How the English proficient students used translanguageing when they wrote was examined according to the four categories found in their oral speech: 1) sociolinguistic knowledge, 2) metalinguistic awareness, 3) metacognitive insight, and 4) sociocultural understanding.

English proficient writers' sociolinguistic knowledge. The majority of the English proficient students' translanguageing in writing functioned as sociolinguistic competence (50%, 64%, 70% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively) (see Figure 2 in Appendix A). They all demonstrated their sociolinguistic knowledge when they added English words into their Korean sentences. During the writing conferences, Joon and Yuri indicated that they sometimes added English words into their Korean sentences because they knew how to say the Korean words but were unsure about the correct Korean spellings. On the other hand, Rena's reason for writing English words or phrases was mostly because she did not know the corresponding Korean words.

Excerpt 19 shows an example of how Joon used translanguaging during the editing stage, which demonstrated his sociolinguistic competence. During his Korean writing, Joon wrote the word “baby” in English. After finishing his first draft, he read his draft and changed the English word “baby” into the equivalent Korean word by using the strikethrough mark.

Excerpt 19. Quicker lexical access in a more proficient language

Title: 호랑이와 귤감 [The tiger and persimmon]

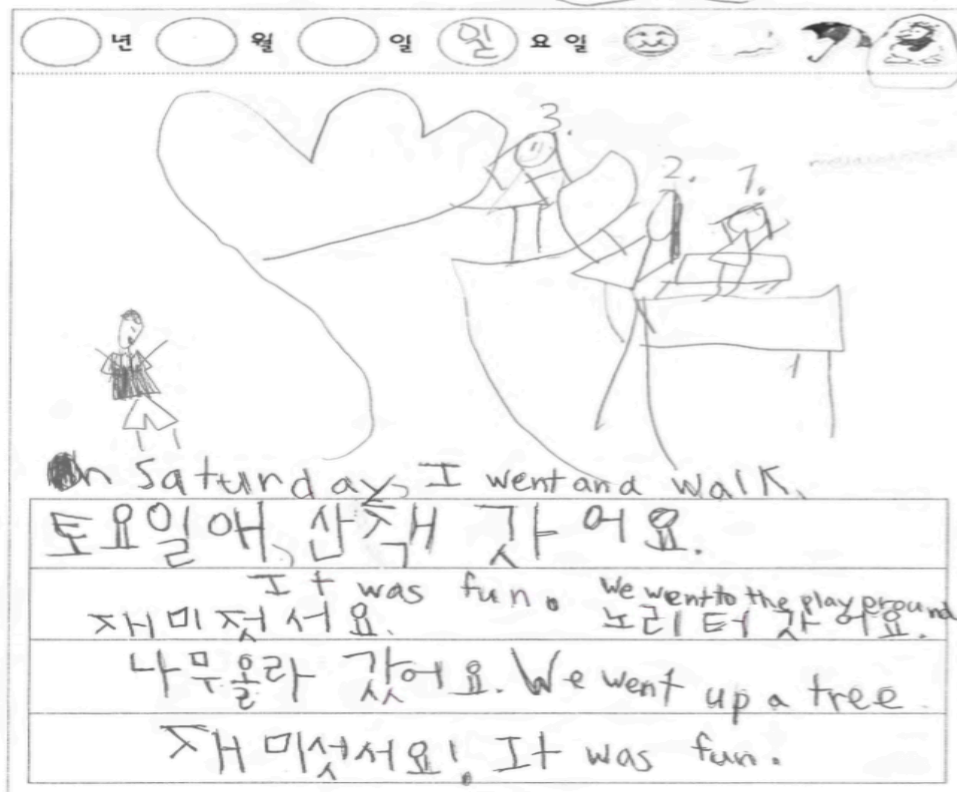
호랑이가 집에 왔는데 ~~baby~~아기가 우렸어요. 그리고 엄마가 귤감 준다고 해고 ~~baby~~
아기가 안 울었어요. 그리고 호랑이가 도망갔어요.

[When the tiger came to the house, the baby was crying. And the mom said (to the baby) that you would be given persimmon, and the baby stopped crying. And the tiger ran away.]

During the interview, Joon stated that “I just didn’t remember the Korean word at that time, but I remembered it after finishing this (his writing sample).” His statement indicates that the Korean word for “baby” was not accessed by him at that moment during his first draft because he had quicker lexical access to English. Thus, translanguaging into English for the unknown word let him complete his draft so that he could render it into Korean later when he revisited his text.

Excerpt 20 shows how Yuri composed her diary entry in Korean and English so that she could convey what she wanted to say to a bilingual reader.

Excerpt 20. Translanguaging to ensure reader’s understanding



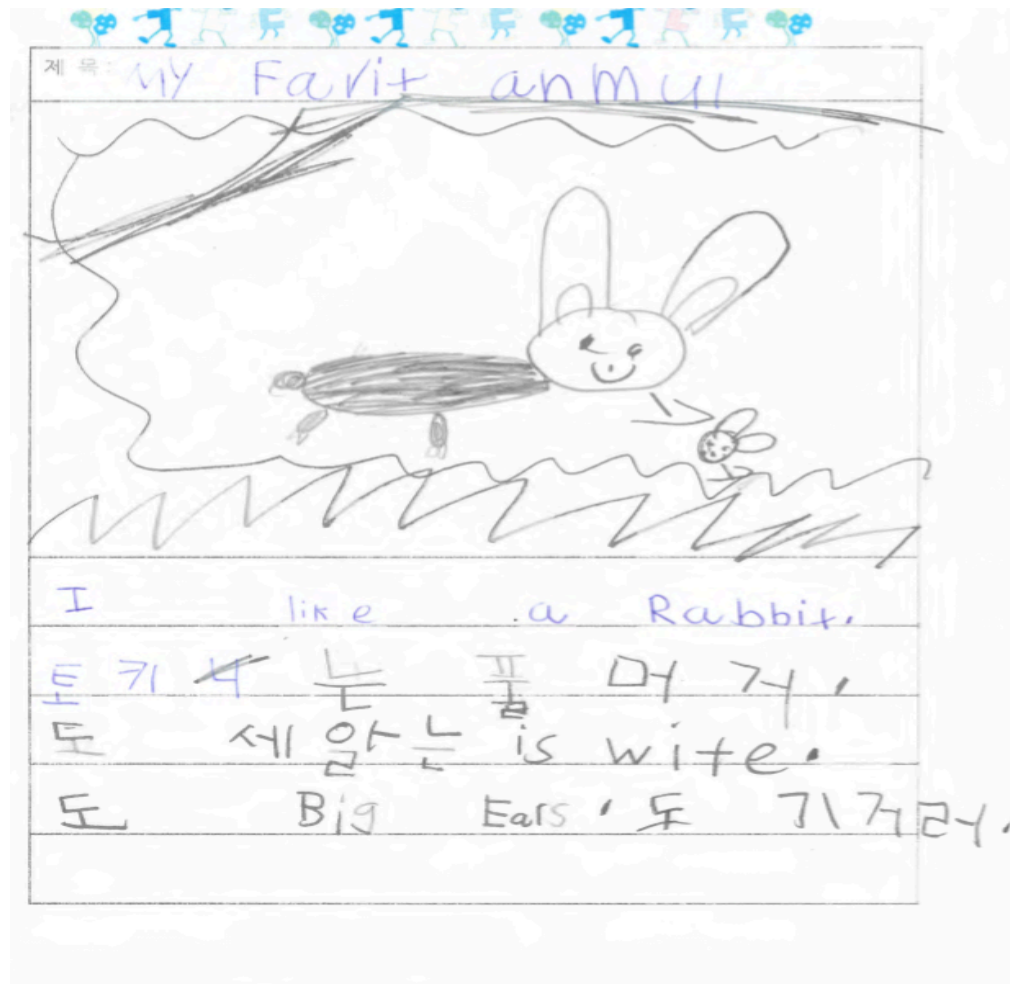
During the interview, Yuri explained that she wrote in English what she had written in Korean because she was unsure of her Korean and wanted to make sure that the reader understood what she had written:

저는 한글로 하는게 조금 unsure 해서 영어로 다시 write 했어요 왜냐면 나는 영어를 더 잘하니까. 그리고 제가 Korean 으로 mistake 많이 하면 English 로 다시하면 무슨말인지 알 수 있으니까 [I was not sure about my Korean writing so I rewrite them in English again because I am good at English. And if I make many mistakes in Korean but rewrite them in English again, one (the reader) can know what I write about].

Rena's writing samples sometimes showed sentence-level translanguaging. Excerpt 21 shows one of Rena's writing samples, which exhibits her word- and sentence-level

translanguaging. Rena initiated writing in English and then switched to Korean. In the subsequent Korean sentences, she added English words.

Excerpt 21. Utilizing dual lexicon



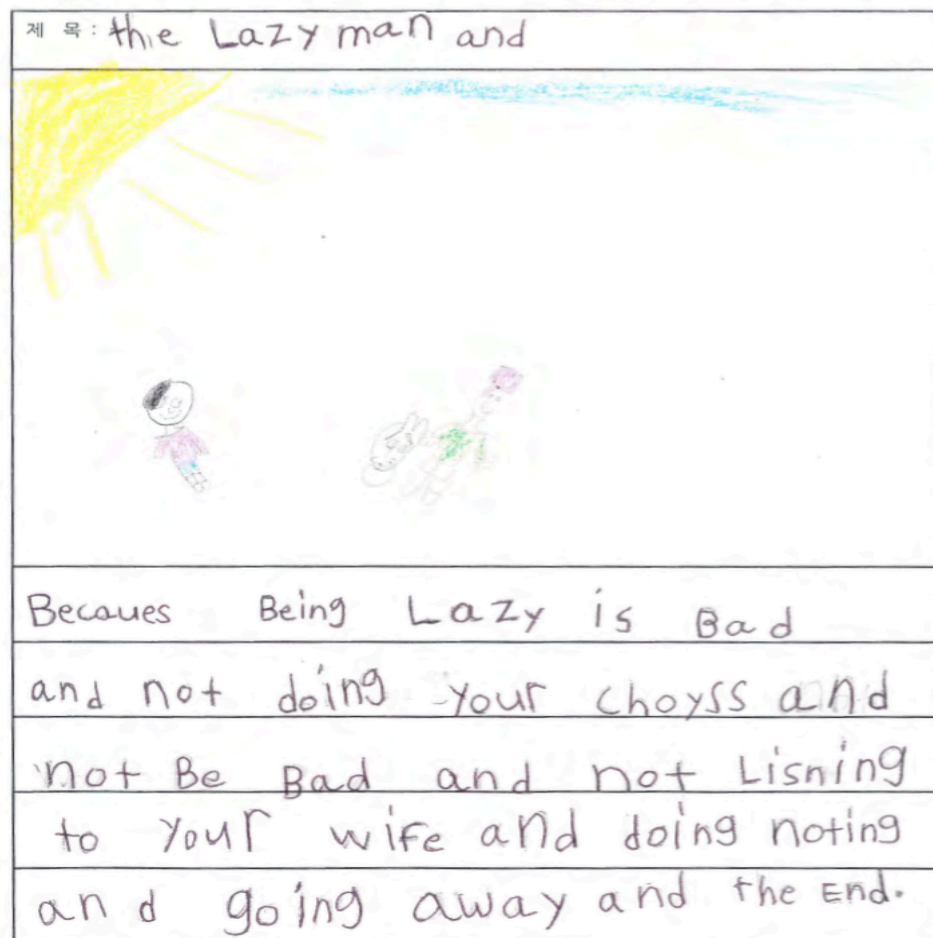
Title: My favorite animal

I like a rabbit. A rabbit eats grass. And its color is wite [white]. And it has big ears. And it is cute.

During the interview, Rena explained that she relied on English when she engaged in Korean writing. Rena explained that “나는 Korean 으로 다 write 하는거 어려워요” [I feel difficulty when I have to write all in Korean]. Indeed, Rena was the student who sometimes asked whether she could write in English during in-class writing. When the class was allowed to choose the

language that they preferred to write, Rena chose to write in English. Rena's writing showed that she rarely wrote Korean words in her English sentences (2%), and the Korean words that she provided in her English sentences indicated her sociocultural knowledge from Korean. Yet, she did not include Korean words for other functions of translanguaging. There was no trace of her use of Korean in her English writing samples, as illustrated in Excerpt 22.

Excerpt 22. Rena's English writing sample – no use of Korean translanguaging



Rena felt confident about her English writing, stating, “I wanted to write in English because writing English is easier (than writing in Korean) because I know English well.” However, close analysis of her English writing sample in Excerpt 22 shows that she had grammatical and spelling mistakes in her English writing. It appears that her writing skills in

English and Korean both were at the emergent stages. In her interview, Rena revealed why she felt more confident writing in English than Korean: “I need help from English when I write in Korean, but I don’t need (any assistance from Korean) when I write in English.” Rena’s statement also indicates that she was using her metalinguistic insight; thus, this finding also is an example of her metalinguistic awareness. More examples of the English proficient students’ metalinguistic awareness are discussed in the following section.

English proficient bilingual writers’ metalinguistic awareness. The writing samples by the three English proficient students display that they mainly used Korean when they composed the texts in the body, but often used titles and captions in English. This translanguaging pattern is analyzed as the students’ metalinguistic understanding since they were able to identify their own language use and to regulate their language choices for different places in the composition. Out of the four different functions, the English proficient students’ translanguaging sometimes functioned as metalinguistic awareness (41%, 30%, 25% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively; see Figure 2 in Appendix A).

Table 6 shows the students’ use of Korean and English in their texts and captions. The three English proficient students frequently used translanguaging when they presented captions (58%, 55%, 48% for Joon, Yuri, and Rena, respectively), whereas their use of translanguaging was less observed in the body of their writing (27%, 32%, and 38%, respectively). There were a few cases when the English-proficient students composed all in Korean (the body of texts and captions) without utilizing the translanguaging strategy in writing (15%, 13%, and 14%, respectively). In terms of the Korean proficient student’s writing, 97 % of Nari’s writing samples were in Korean, with only one writing sample showing translanguaging in her text and caption. None of the first-graders wrote the texts in English with captions in Korean.

Table 6

First-Graders' Use of Korean and English in the Texts and Captions

	Writing texts and captions in Korean (no translanguaging)	Writing in Korean with captions in English	Translanguaging in writing & captions	Total
Joon	5 (15%)	19 (58%)	9 (27%)	33 (100%)
Yuri	4 (13%)	17 (55%)	10 (32%)	31 (100%)
Rena	4 (14%)	14 (48%)	11 (38%)	29 (100%)
Nari	37 (97%)	0	1 (3%)	38 (100%)

Note. The numbers in the columns indicate the number of writing samples that the first-graders provided.

The English proficient students' answers during the interviews helped to explain why they tended to write the text in Korean but often used English for their captions. For example, Joon explained that writing at the Korean language school should be in Korean, but that the captions were not "real writing:"

이거는 Korean 써야 되는거 알아요 왜냐하면 나는 이거 한글로 writing 하라고 배웠어요. 근데 이거는 real writing 아니라서 조금 add 했어요” [I know that I have to write those (in-class writing tasks) in Korean because ... I was asked to write them in Korean. But, because they (captions) are not real writing, I added English a little bit].

Similarly, Yuri seemed to understand that she should write the homework at the Korean language school in Korean, stating: “왜냐면 저는 이거 한국말로 해야돼요 왜냐면 이거는 한글학교 숙제니까. 이거는 선생님이 읽는 거니까 Korean only 해야돼요” [Because I have to write this (diary entries) in Korean because it is Korean homework. This will be read by the Korean teacher so I have to write it in Korean only]. Yuri presented a lot of speech bubbles as captions (e.g., Yay! No way! This is fun!) in her writing samples (i.e., 25 times in 33 writing

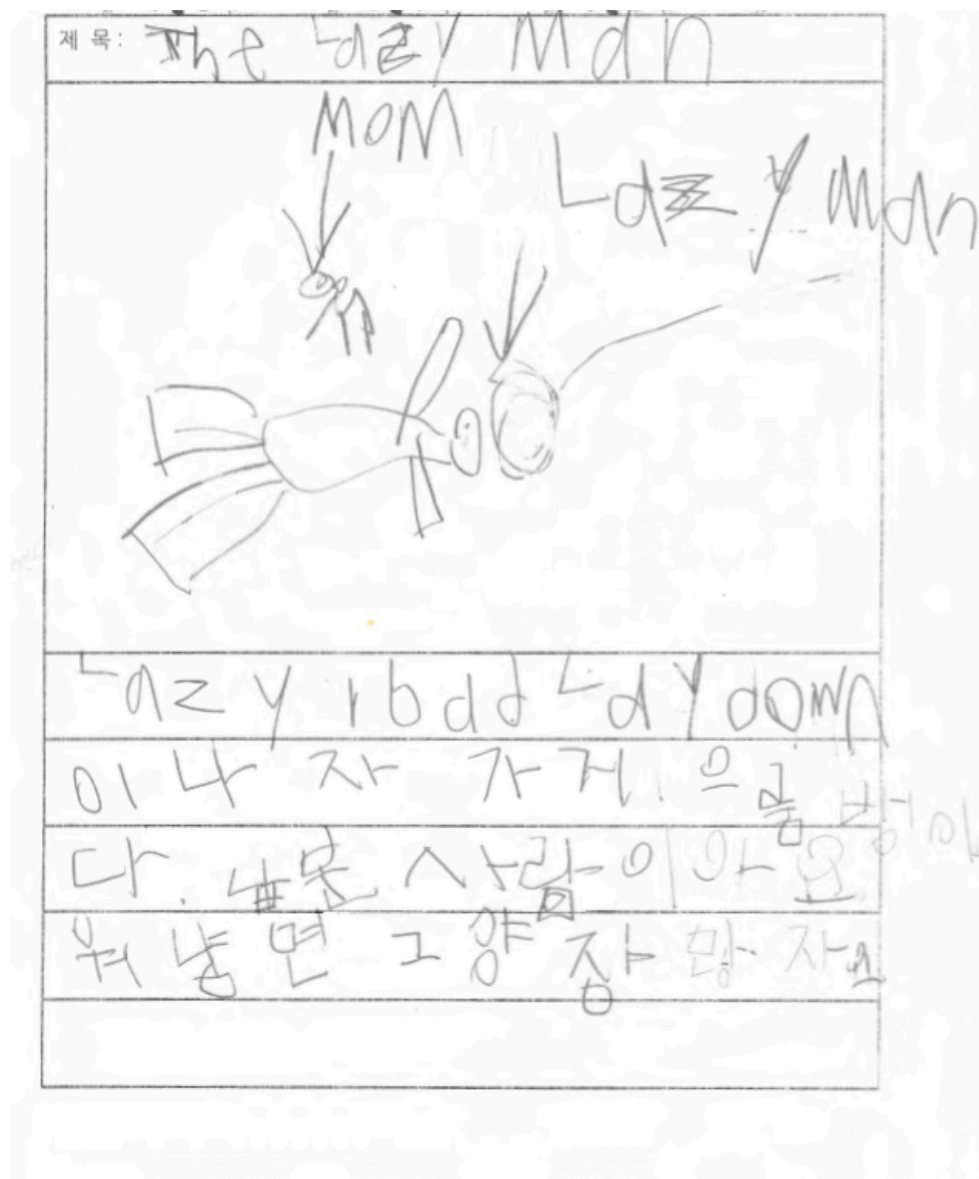
samples), and mainly used English in the bubbles. Yuri explained, “I used English because this (the content in her speech bubble) is what my friend said and this is what my sister said....” Her statements indicate that she used English because the people she presented in her drawings were using English when they said something.

Rena also wrote her texts mostly in Korean but often provided captions in English to explain her drawings, which involved English proper nouns for places or names of activities:

나는 Korean 많이해요 write 할때 한글학교에서. 그런데 나 여기에는 special words
여서 next to my drawing 그래서 English 로 썼어요 [I use Korean often when I write in
the Korean language school, but these are special words next to my drawing; thus, I
wrote it in English].

Joon’s writing sample in Excerpt 23 shows how he used translanguaging when he responded to the Korean folktale, *The Lazy Man Who Became a Cow*. His writing displays that he was trying to come up with several ideas before he actually wrote the sentences. He listed the English words that describe the lazy man, the main character in the book, (“Lazy”, “bad”, and “Lay down”), which indicate that he was thinking about the lazy man’s characteristics in English, as Joon confirmed in his interview: “이건 나 진짜 writing 아니예요. 나 영어로 먼저 thinking 해서. 여기 봐요. 나 Korean 으로 write 했어요”. [It is not my actual writing. I was thinking in English first. Look here. I write them in Korean]. After his composition in Korean, Joon translanguaged into English again to write the captions for his drawings. This example of translanguaging served as Joon’s metalinguistic awareness since he controlled his language choices by identifying his language use. Joon understood that the texts should be written in Korean (in the draft stage) but English could be used when organizing his thoughts (prewriting) as well as for the caption writing (after drafting).

Excerpt 23. Metalinguistically organized ideas before composing



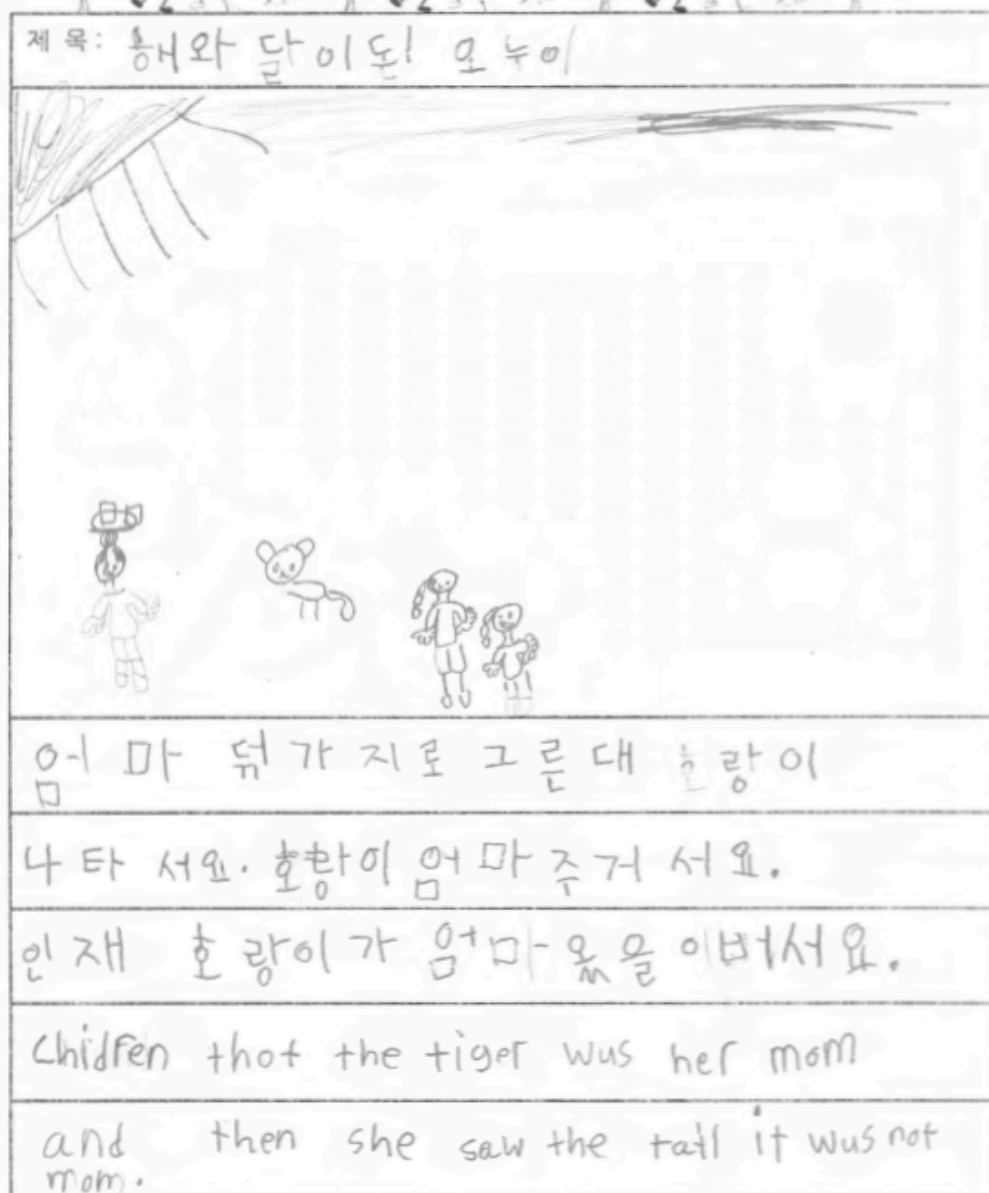
Title: The lazy man

Lazy, bad, lay down

The man is a lazy person. He is a bad person because he just sleeps all the time.

Excerpt 24 further shows Rena's written response to the Korean folktale *The Brother and Sister Who Became Sun and Moon*. Rena wrote the first three sentences in Korean, but she translanguaged entirely into English to complete her writing.

Excerpt 24. Using metalinguistic insight to expand thoughts



Title: The brother and sister who became sun and moon

The mom brought rice cakes (for her children) but met the tiger. The tiger killed the mom. The tiger wore the mom's clothes. Children thought that the tiger was their mom and then they saw the (tiger's) tail. It was not (their) mom.

Close analysis shows that unlike Yuri, who completely composed her writing in Korean and translated her texts into English (see Excerpt 28), Rena did not rewrite what she wrote in Korean into English again. Rena might have thought in Korean when she was composing at the beginning but changed her thinking into English, which led her to translanguage during the

process of composition. That is, Rena was not merely translating the texts from Korean to English; rather, she expanded her ideas by adding new sentences in English. During the writing conference, Rena explained:

나 한글로 써야되는거 알아요. 한국말 쓰려고 했어요 여기까지 그리고 English 로
딱 하나만 썼어요. 여기는 three sentences 그리고 여기는 one sentence 예요. [I know
that I had to write in Korean. I tried to write it in Korean until here and used English only
for one sentence at the end. These (Korean sentences) are three sentences, but this
(English sentence) is only one.]

Her response indicates that she acknowledged that she was encouraged to write in Korean. Rena's translanguaging during writing demonstrates her metalinguistic awareness because she was aware that she switched the languages to complete the draft.

Yuri's diary sample in Excerpt 25 displays a similar pattern of translanguaging although her purpose for translanguaging seemed different. Yuri wrote what happened when her sister made fun of her father. Her writing shows that she translanguaged into English when she used the word "prank." Except for the word "prank", she completed her diary entry using Korean. However, she wrote more in English in the space below her diary to elaborate on how her sister pranked her father.

Excerpt 25. Using metalinguistic awareness to explain a concept



Today my older sister pranked my dad. It was fun. Funny!
She put toilet paper on the door! She saw daddy jumping & saying “Whoa!”

It is plausible to hypothesize that Yuri was thinking about the episode in English after finishing her diary; thus, she addressed what happened in English. However, during the interview, she stated that “나 이거 한글로 썼어요. 근데 이거는 나 diary 아니예요. 나 이거 그냥 explain 한거예요.” [I wrote my diary in Korean, but this [the English sentences] is not part of my diary. I just explained about this (pointing the English word “prank” that she wrote)]. According to her response, Yuri was trying to share the humorous episode with the readers by elaborating more about it in English, which appeared to be a comfortable language for her. Yuri’s understanding

that English was acceptable when she needed further explanations led her to translanguage, which showed her metalinguistic awareness.

English proficient writers' metacognitive insight. The students used translanguageing when they engaged in inner speech during or after writing. Although only two translanguageing examples for metacognitive function were found in Yuri and Joon's writing samples when they added the word from the other language after they engaged in self-talk (Excerpts 29 & 30), other examples of this function were found when the students engaged in inner speech during the process of writing.

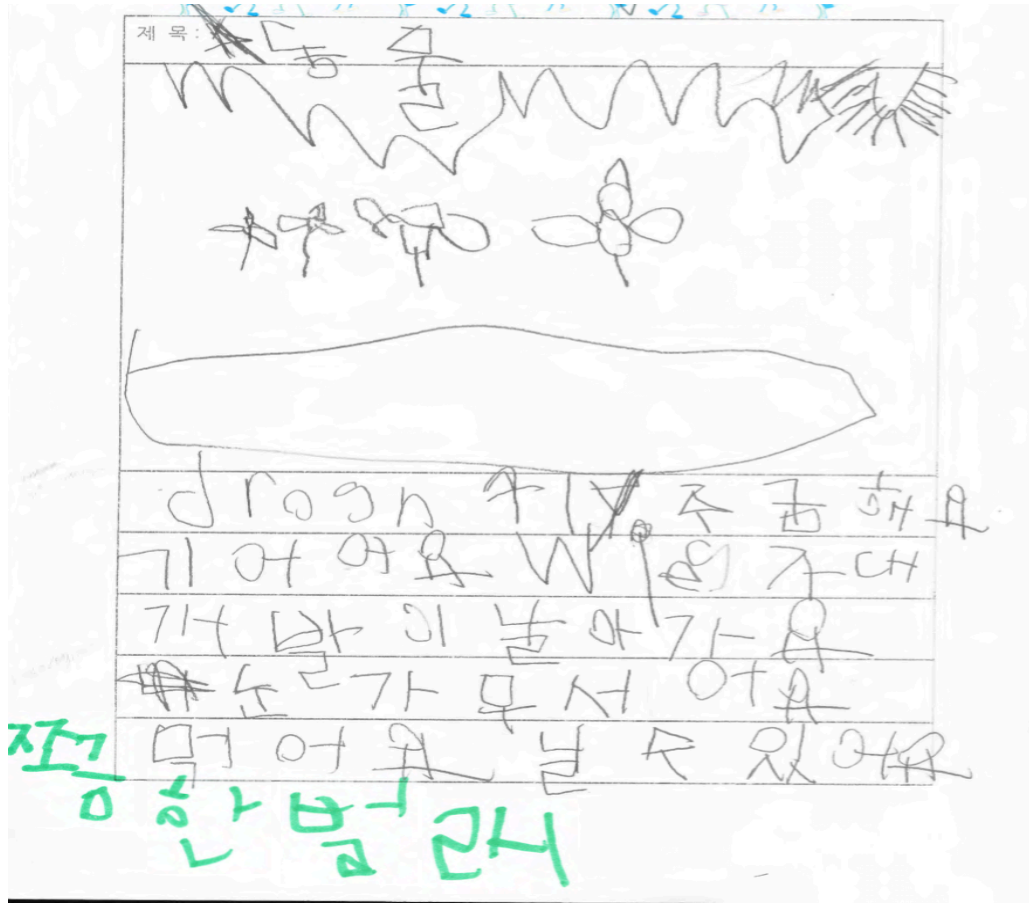
Excerpt 26 shows the conversation between Joon and me during the writing conference when he wrote about his favorite animal. When Joon read his composition (turn 2), I noticed that he forgot to write the object in his last sentence. When I orally repeated the sentence that he wrote (turn 3), Joon realized that he forgot the object of the sentence (turn 4). He verbally said the object ("small insects") in English and wrote the word in Korean using the margins. When Joon reflected on his writing, he engaged in several steps of translanguageing – rereading it in Korean, evaluating it in English, verbally presenting the word in English, and eventually producing the written words in Korean. Joon's translanguageing in this example appears to assist him to use his metacognitive insight in order to eventually produce a completed thought in his Korean writing.

Excerpt 26. Translanguageing when engaging in inner-speech for writing-related talk

1. T: 여기 읽어볼래? [Can you read what you wrote here?]
2. Joon: Drognfly 주금해요... 먹어요. [Dragonfly is small... They eat.]
3. T: 애네가 먹어? [They eat?]
4. Joon: Oh, I forgot. Small insects. They eat small insects. (Joon grabbed the pen and

Below (Excerpt 27) shows Joon’s writing sample that displays how he added the word (“small insect”) in Korean (with a color pen) after he verbally said it in English.

Excerpt 27. Metacognitive function of translanguaging after engaging in inner speech



Title: Animal

Dragonflies are small. They are cute. Their wings help them to fly fast. Their eyes are scary. They eat (small insects). They can fly.

Similar to Joon's example, Yuri's writing-related talk also showed that she used a translanguaging strategy when she engaged in private speech. Excerpt 28 shows the conversation between Yuri and me during the conference before Yuri wrote about her wishes. When I encouraged Yuri to verbally address her wishes before writing them, she successfully produced the word "twin" in Korean (turn 2). But, during the writing time, it was observed that

Yuri talked to herself “I don’t know how to write 쌍둥이[twin]” (turn 4). Although she verbally articulated the word “twin” in Korean, she was not sure how to write it correctly in Korean.

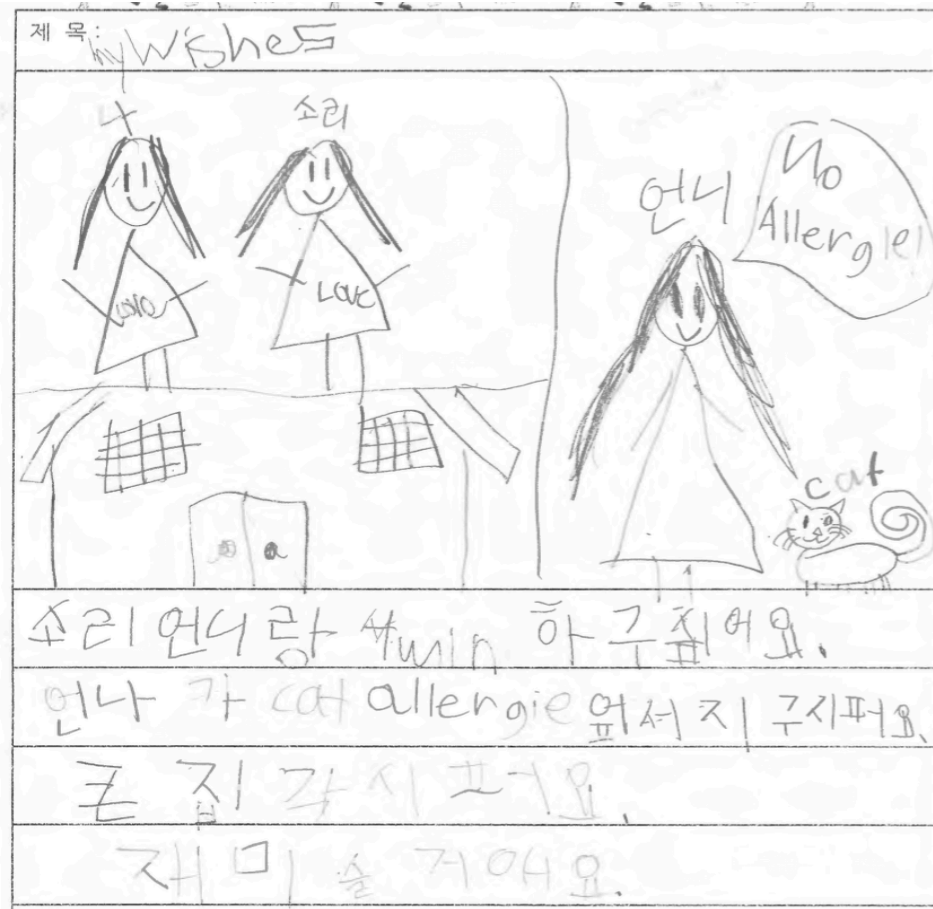
Yuri’s following utterance displays that she ended up writing the word in English.

Excerpt 28. Translanguaging when engaging in inner-speech for writing-related talk

1. T: 그래. 그럼 글로 우리가 써볼 건데 쓰기전에 선생님한테 먼저 말로 해줘
볼래? [Yuri, can you tell me your wishes first before you write?]
2. Yuri: 솔이랑 똑같이 하고 싶어.. 쌍둥이. [I want to be the same with my friend ...
like twin.]
- ...
3. T: 자 이제 우리 글로 소원을 써보자 [Okay, Let’s write your wishes now.]
4. Yuri: (to herself) I don’t know how to write 쌍둥이. 어떻게 써? 나 그냥 영어로
할래. Twin! [I do not know how to write the word “twin” in Korean. How do I write
it? I will write it in English then! Twin!]

In her writing sample (Excerpt 29), there is evidence of an erased Korean word “twin” before she produced the word in English. Yuri engaged in a series of stages – trying to write the word initially in Korean, evaluating the correct spelling, erasing what she wrote in Korean, and finally producing the word in English. As presented in Joon’s writing-related talk in the previous example, Yuri’s translanguaging strategy helped her complete her writing by engaging in inner-speech, which demonstrated that she used her metacognitive insight.

Excerpt 29. Metacognitive function of translanguaging after engaging in inner speech



Title: My wishes

I want to be twins with my friend. I wish my sister had not had cat allergies. I want to have a big house. It would be fun.

Excerpt 30 also shows Joon's inner-speech when he engaged in writing-related talk during his composition. When the class was asked to write a letter to one of their classmates, the students were allowed to write the letter in the language that they preferred, and Joon chose English as his comfortable language. Joon was trying to write the word "together" in his English letter, but when he talked to himself, he said that he did not know how to write the word. He eventually decided to write it in Korean to complete his letter writing.

Excerpt 30. Translanguaging when engaging in inner-speech for writing-related talk

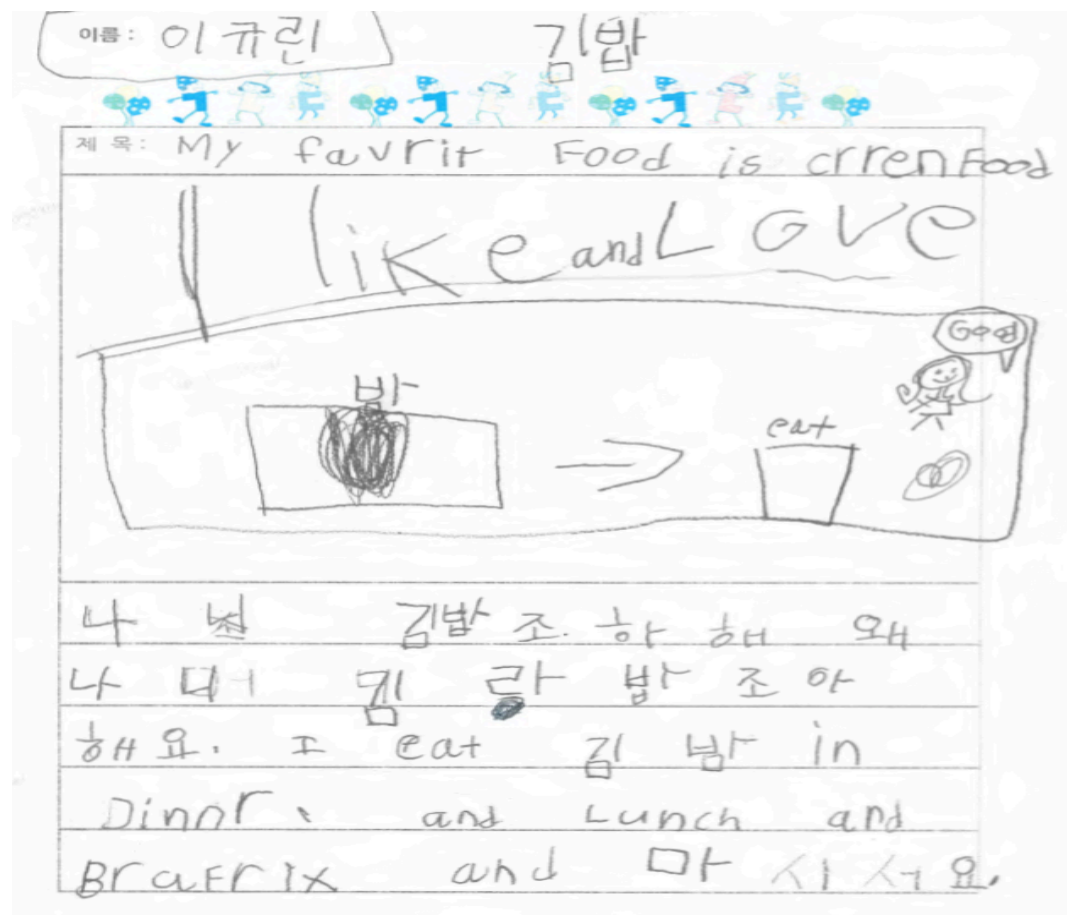
Joon: 나 어떻게 쓰는지 몰라. 같이 어떻게 써? 나 같이 영어로 together 아는데
어떻게 쓰는지 몰라. 그냥 한글로 할래. 같이 [I do not know how to write it (together).
How can I write the word “together” (in English)? I know how to say it in English, but do
not know how to write it. I will just write it in Korean. I know it.]

This is a similar finding to the previous example by Yuri. Both Yuri and Joon knew how to say the target words but did not know the correct spellings. The findings suggest that they were able to utilize their linguistic repertoires in order to complete their sentences, rather than giving up or not using the unknown word. Yuri’s and Joon’s practice seemed to be an emergent bilingual writer’s strategy.

English proficient writers’ sociocultural knowledge. Similar to the students’ oral responses discussed earlier, the English proficient students used translanguaging in their writing to present their sociocultural knowledge. This function of translanguaging was discovered when the students spoke in English but utilized their Korean cultural knowledge to add clarity. Similarly, the same sociocultural translanguaging function was found in the English proficient students’ writing when they provided English sentences and translanguaged into Korean words or phrases for cultural purposes. Only a few translanguaging examples for the sociocultural function were found in the English proficient students’ writing (7%, 4%, 5% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively; see Figure 2 in Appendix A).

Excerpt 31 shows Rena’s writing sample about her favorite Korean food, which displays her use of sentence-level translanguaging. After she wrote the first sentence in Korean, she translanguaged into English. In her English sentence, she utilized word-level translanguaging again in Korean to insert the name of the Korean food.

Excerpt 31. Use of translanguaging to show her sociocultural knowledge



Title: My favrit food is crren food

나는 김 조하해 왜 나머지 김랑 밥 조아해요. I eat 김밥 in dinner and lunch and brafix and 마시셔요. [I like kimbab [Korean food item] because I like seaweed and rice. I eat kimbab in dinner, lunch, and breakfast and (it is) delicious.]

It was difficult to see the presence of translanguageing that served as sociocultural understanding by the other students (Joon & Yuri) because they were not engaged in sentence-level translanguageing. However, they tended to write their captions more in English than Korean, so their use of translanguageing in their captions was analyzed to see if they utilized their sociocultural knowledge.

Excerpt 32 shows Joon's translanguageing in his captions, which shows he borrowed his sociocultural knowledge from Korean. Joon wrote his diary entry all in Korean, but he primarily chose English for his caption writing ("birthday party" and "cake"). Yet, he translanguageed into

Korean when he referred to his family members – 누나 (sister), 엄마 (mom), 아빠 (dad). This was found to be a common translanguaging pattern in their oral responses because they were more likely to refer to their family members using Korean in their English speech. This example implies that Joon appeared to use the language that best reflects his thinking about his family members, and further implies that his translanguaging into Korean for the particular words (family members) occurred because of his sociocultural understanding in Korean.

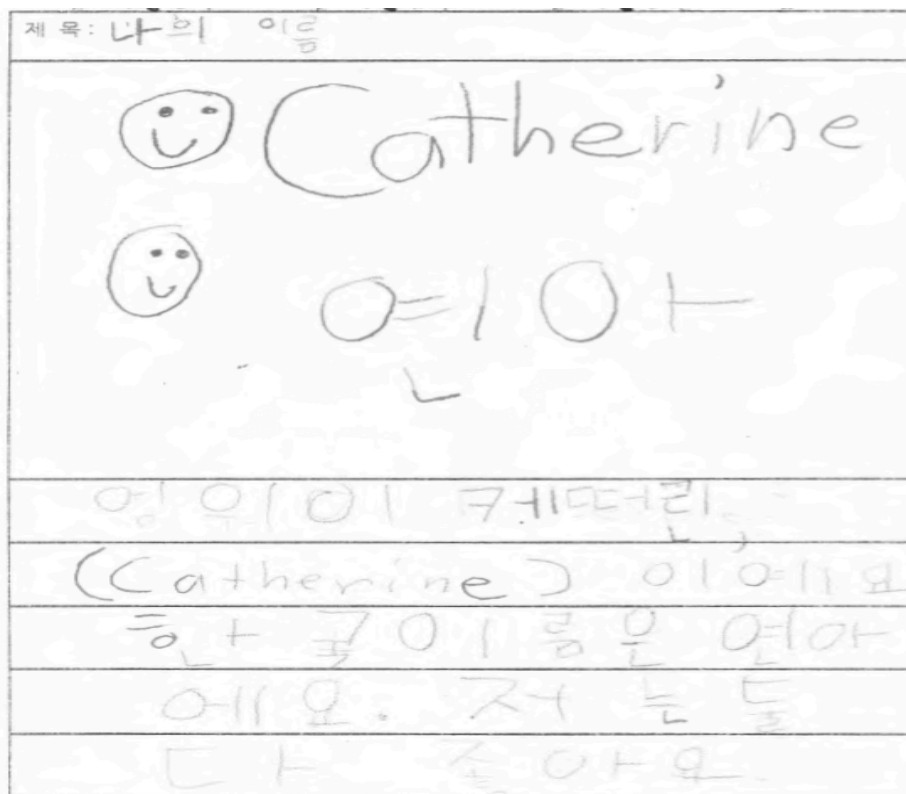
Excerpt 32. Translanguaging into Korean to refer to family members



It was my mom's birthday. And we ate a birthday cake. And it was fun.
Captions: Birthday party, cake, 엄마 [mom], 아빠 [dad], 누나 [sister]

Functions of written translanguaging by the Korean proficient student. As shown in Table 5, Nari composed 38 pieces of writing using only Korean, plus one writing sample where she used an English word in Korean sentences (for a total of 39 writing samples with 207 sentences; 99.5% in Korean). The presence of English in one of her writing samples is displayed in Excerpt 33. The English word that Nari wrote was her English name. Since Nari introduced her Korean and English names, it was inevitable for her to write her English name in English. However, Nari wrote her English name by using Korean letters based on how it sounds [케 떠 린; Catherine] and then provided the English name within parentheses. This finding demonstrates that Nari was able to use her phonological awareness from English to transcribe the word in Korean, which further indicates that she used her sociolinguistic knowledge through translanguaging.

Excerpt 33. Using sociolinguistic knowledge to introduce her English name in Korean



Title: My names

My English name is Catherine. My Korean name is Nari. I like them both.

During a writing conference with Nari, she stated why she presented the Korean name but provided the English name within parentheses. She explained, “만약 제가 영어로 쓰면 영어 못읽는 사람은 제 영어 이름 어떻게 발음되는지 모르니까요” [If I write it only in English, people who do not know English would not know how to pronounce my English name]. Nari’s response implies that she was not only aware that the composition should be written in Korean but also considered that the readers would be monolingual Koreans. Thus, her use of translanguaging functioned as her metalinguistic awareness.

Although Nari provided English only one time throughout her writing samples, English words appeared in her writing but she wrote them using Korean letters. For instance, when she wrote the words – YMCA, playdate, waterpark, and gymnastics – she wrote the words using Korean letters based on how they are pronounced in English. These were words that she often used in the U.S. context; thus, using English might have been easier and quicker for Nari. However, since she was aware that compositions for the Korean language school should be written in Korean, she appeared to use her Korean linguistic knowledge for the particular English words when writing.

Case Studies of Three First-Grade Students

In this section, I share mini-case studies of three of the four first-graders (Joon, Rena, and Nari) to discuss socio-cultural influences on the Korean bilingual first-graders’ language use. The findings are drawn from two semi-structured interviews with each of the three children’s mothers and two of the focal mothers’ journals about their children’s (Joon and Nari) daily language use, which illustrates the parents’ attitudes and actions towards their children’s language use and learning.

Joon, the second-generation, male first-grader. Joon's father and mother had moved to the U. S. seven years ago when they temporarily moved to the U.S. for the father's graduate study. Both Joon and his older sister Suji (one of the third-graders in this dissertation) were born in the U.S. and began their initial schooling in the U.S. During school breaks, the family has visited Korea on an annual basis and stayed there for about a month each year. Joon's mother said that he improved his Korean communicative skills while in Korea because he had opportunities to meet and talk with his relatives and other Koreans. Because the parents do not hold permanent residency in the U.S., the family's future residency is unsure, and depends on the father's future occupation. The father prefers to find a job in the U.S. since both father and mother agree that the education system in the U.S. would be better for Joon.

"Both Korean and English are important." Because Joon's parents are unsure about their permanent residency, they think it is important for their children learn and master both Korean and English. The mother stated:

Learning Korean is very important for my children. Since we (her husband and her) do not know exactly whether we will stay in the U.S. or go back to Korea, learning and mastering both languages are critical for our children. It is true that if we will stay here [U.S], English might be more important for our children, but if we will go back to Korea, Korean would be more important for them to learn.

The mother's response indicates that where they live plays a pivotal role in the parents' attitudes toward their children's language learning. Joon's mother also valued Korean language learning because it is a part of her children's identity as Koreans. She explained:

Korean is crucial not just for communication, talking with grandparents, for instance, but also for their heritage identity as Koreans. I believe that although my children would

identify themselves as Americans, mastering Korean should be necessary. I hope that they should be able to use Korean freely and fluently while living in the U.S.

Different views of Joon's Korean and English proficiencies. Joon was the student who viewed his English proficiency as much stronger than his Korean proficiency. Joon's mother had a different opinion about her child's Korean and English proficiency. During the interview, she mentioned that she was surprised to hear that Joon thinks his English skills are much higher than his Korean skills:

I think that Joon was optimistic and overly confident about his English proficiency but less generous and confident about his Korean proficiency.... I think his Korean is better than how he evaluated it, but his English is less developed than what he reported. Even though Joon believes he is better in English than in Korean, this might apply to his listening and speaking skills. In terms of literacy skills, since he has not fully acquired English grammar and spelling, it is hard to say that his English literacy is better than his Korean literacy.

She reported that Joon used to feel more comfortable using Korean than English. According to the mother, he learned more English when he entered kindergarten and attended school full time compared to when he attended preschool part time.

Parents accept Joon's English, but encourage his use of Korean at home. Once Joon became proficient in English and began to use more English at home, the parents tried to encourage him to respond in Korean as much as possible. The mother stated that Joon used to have antipathy towards learning English when he was first exposed to English; however, since he became more confident in speaking English than Korean, he tended to show his antipathy toward speaking in Korean at home. Thus, the parents tried to encourage Joon to speak in Korean

whenever they observed him speaking entirely in English. However, the mother admitted that asking Joon to speak in Korean all the time or to use Korean to restate what he had said in English was difficult and even impossible. Accordingly, she and her husband recently accepted Joon's use of English. The mother added that she and her husband thought his use of English was a natural development:

I think that Joon's increased use of English is a natural phenomenon as most Korean-American children experienced. Thus, we (she and her husband) had to accept and understand his increased use of English as time goes by.

Parents' negative attitude toward translanguaging. The mother stated that as Joon's use of English increased, she and her husband tended to insert English words or phrases into their Korean speech (i.e., CM) when they talked to their child(ren). But, the mother thought that their use of translanguaging was not an appropriate habit for Joon (and Suji, the first child) to learn Korean:

I realized that we (her and her husband) recently inserted English words or phrases into our Korean speech when we responded to our children as their use of English increased. But, I do not think this is a good habit for our children to practice Korean. Thus, we decided to try not to mix up the languages to keep our conversation only in Korean.

Impact of learning two languages. Joon's mother thought that in the long run, there was a positive impact on a child who learned two languages. However, she pointed out that there might be possible negative impacts on children during their language emergent stage. She thought that Joon mumbled and stuttered when he was exposed to two languages:

Joon mumbled his speech... and tended to stutter at the beginning of his speech. He showed that he had difficulty articulating his ideas. I think he seemed to have speech

disorders during his transition periods [when they were learning English in addition to Korean].

Joon consciously tries to use Korean with his parents. According to the mother's journals, Joon tended to use more English than Korean with his older sister (Suji); however, when the parents joined the conversation, they mostly switched to Korean. The mother reported that when Joon knows that his parents are watching him and listening to his conversation, the amount of Korean that he uses is increased despite the fact that the parents do not ask him to speak in Korean.

One of the mother's journals displayed a concrete example of Joon's use of translanguaging, depending on his interlocutors. The mother observed her children playing a video game at home. Joon presented his emotions and reactions to the game in English (e.g., "This is awesome"). When Joon spoke with his sister, Suji, English was the main language he used. Yet, when the mother interrupted their play to ask questions in Korean (e.g. "Aren't you guys hungry? How much longer will you play?"). Joon responded to his mother in Korean. This finding suggests that although the parents did not request that Joon speak in Korean all the time at home, Joon seemed to know that the home language is Korean, and that he should use Korean when talking to his parents.

The mother's journal displayed another example of Joon's conscious use of Korean. According to the mother's report, Joon and Suji were fighting because they both wanted to take the same seat on the sofa while watching television. The mother asked why they were fighting and who was at fault. Responding to his mother, Joon used English and made an excuse. However, after the mother scolded him in Korean, Joon switched his language to Korean and

admitted that it was his fault. His mother thought that Joon's switch from English to Korean was a way to show her respect:

Both Joon and Suji seemed to know that they have to be polite when we (she and her husband) teach them a lesson. When they feel that we are very mad at their bad behaviors, they tend to use Korean to express that they are sorry and to reflect on their wrongdoings. Because of the difference in honorific formality between English and Korean, if they reply in English..., it is not easy to grasp whether they are taking my advice seriously and reflecting on their mistakes.

Considering his peers' language use and proficiency. According to his mother, Joon tends to use English more than Korean when talking to his friends who are second-generation Korean-Americans like him. He does this because he knows that they are more fluent in English than Korean. However, when he had a playdate with a Korean friend who came to the U.S. less than a year ago, and who has limited English proficiency, Joon predominantly used Korean with his friend. According to his mother's observation, with his Korean-American peers, Joon spoke 90 percent of the time in English and 10 percent of the time in Korean, whereas, with the friend who recently arrived from Korea, he spoke 90 percent of the time in Korean. Joon explained, "We (he and his friend) are speaking both Korean and English. But my Korean is better than his English. That's why I use Korean with him." His statement indicates that he was aware of his interlocutors' language use and proficiency, and adjusted his language use accordingly. The latter suggests that Joon is a bilingual speaker who can strategically manipulate or control his two languages.

The influence of context on Joon's language use. His mother's journals revealed that Joon's language use also was influenced by the context in which he interacted with his

interlocutors. The language that the family members used during their dinnertime at home was mostly Korean because the parents often initiated the conversation. Although Joon sometimes said English words or phrases, he primarily spoke in Korean and appeared to use more Korean than English when he engaged in talk with his family.

On the other hand, the mother witnessed Joon's increased use of English when the family had a meal at a restaurant. The mother observed that Joon tended to use more English than Korean. For instance, while Joon was looking at the menu, he used English to talk and ask his parents about food items. Also, when Joon heard his parents use English when ordering food, he began to use English exclusively with them. His mother believed that Joon's language use or choice was easily affected by the surrounding context or setting.

The mother shared another example that captures how Joon's language use was influenced by the context. The mother noticed that as soon as Joon was home from his American school, he had difficulty speaking Korean. He seemed to need time to select Korean words and to actually speak sentences in Korean. His mother believed that it was difficult for him to switch to using Korean because he had been exposed to the English only context and had been surrounded by English-speaking peers/teachers during the day.

Rena, the second-generation, female first-grader. Rena's father and mother had moved to the U. S. 22 years ago when they entered a university in the U.S. After Rena's father found a job in the U.S., the family became permanent residents and planned to stay in the U.S. permanently. Rena and her two older brothers (5th and 10th graders each) were born in the U.S. and began their initial schooling in the U.S. During school breaks, the family has visited Korea once a year for a month. According to Rena's mother, visiting Korea was a good opportunity for Rena to learn about Korean culture and customs. Rena's parents believed that teaching her about

Korean culture is more important than teaching HL to Rena since they would permanently stay in the U.S. Thus, the parents' reason to send Rena to the Korean language school was to provide Rena with an opportunity to learn about Korean culture and values. Since Rena's parents came to the U.S. during their teenage years, their English proficiencies were superior to those of other Korean parents in this study. The parents often used English when communicating with Rena instead of asking Rena to use Korean.

“English is obligatory, but Korean is an extra language.” Rena's mother thought that learning the Korean language itself was not highly important for her child. She thought that learning the HL was important, but that it was not mandatory for Rena to acquire perfect Korean proficiency. Rather, she viewed the HL as a tool that reflected Rena's cultural roots. The mother's following statements displayed her beliefs that she regarded Korean as an “additional” language, and that learning Korean culture and manners were more important than learning Korean because “extra” time and effort were needed to teach Korean:

Korean is an *additional* (my emphasis) language while living in the U.S. Learning about Korean culture and manner is more important (than having fluent Korean proficiency) for people like my children (Korean-Americans). I believe that having ability to speak perfect Korean is not mandatory while living in the U.S.... It is true that *extra* (my emphasis) time and effort is required when teaching Korean (to my children).

Flexible use of English at home thanks to the parents' fluent English. Rena's parents appeared to be liberal toward Rena's English use at home. For example, when Rena replied in English to her parents' questions in Korean, the parents did not ask her to respond in Korean again. The mother stated that the role of parents was not just teaching a HL; rather, she believed that flexible communication between the parents and children should be more important:

If we (she and her husband) push Rena to speak in Korean whenever she says something to us, we would not have close interaction, which is not proper or ideal parenting from my perspective. Also, because my and my husband's English proficiency is better than Rena's Korean, we sometimes intentionally use English when we need to have deep conversation, such as when teaching a lesson or delivering important messages to our children.

As shown, Rena's mother believed that the situation in her family was different from other Korean families when it comes to the home language use and the parents' English proficiency. The mother further added:

I think that the situation in my family is different from other Korean families. Most Korean immigrant parents came to the U.S. at their older ages to pursue a higher degree at graduate school or to get a job. Thus, they tend to experience difficulty in communicating with their children...because parents are not that fluent in English, and children are not proficient in Korean. But we (she and her husband) did not go through this challenge.

As displayed, the mother appeared to believe that their fluent English worked as an advantage and a beneficial tool for communication in her family.

“My child's emotions and feelings are important.” Rena's mother strongly believed that parents in immigrant families should not push their children to learn Korean. She pointed out that before teaching Korean, it is important to identify whether their children were ready and interested in learning it. To corroborate her argument, she shared her recent experience in Korea.

During the data collection of this study, Rena's family visited Korea for 5 weeks, and the mother tried to send her children (Rena and her second child) to an elementary school in Korea as visiting students so that they could learn Korean in a formal school setting. But, Rena did not want to go to the school because she was afraid of not being fluent in Korean when interacting

with native Korean-speaking peers. The mother initially encouraged Rena to attend the school, but eventually ended up not forcing her. The mother considered Rena's emotions and feelings first rather than pushing her to attend the school in Korea against her will:

I believe that educating HL should be decided based on my child's comfort level. There might be a negative impact on my child if she was forced to learn Korean. She might feel overwhelmed engaging with native Korean-speaking peers.

Parents' negative attitude toward teaching both languages simultaneously. Rena's mother appeared to have a somewhat doubtful perspective when it came to teaching young children two languages at the same time. In order to corroborate her argument, she shared her first and second children's language learning experiences. She sent her two older children to the Korean language school when they became 3.5 years old. It was also the same time when they began to learn English in their American preschools. According to the mother, her two older children seemed to get confused with learning Korean in a school setting, explaining:

It (their confusion) was probably because we (she and her husband) used English by switching from Korean whenever our children did not understand what we said during our conversation. But, the teachers in the Korean language school used Korean only in the classroom. Thus, my children did not understand or learn much Korean and eventually refused attending the school. I believe that they used to have a bad impression of learning Korean.

As she stated, her older children's negative emotional attitudes towards learning Korean led her to send Rena to the Korean language school when she became 5 years old (1.5 years later than her older brothers). The mother mentioned that she could have sent Rena to the Korean language school earlier (from preschool), but she was concerned that Rena would have the same

experiences as her brothers did:

I believe that it might be burdensome for Rena to learn two languages at the same time, if she had not already acquired one of the languages. I think Rena was ready to attend the Korean language school from the last semester (when she entered the first-grade class) since her English was somewhat established; thus, learning Korean would not impact her English negatively.

Nari, the second-generation, female first-grader. Nari's parents had been in the U.S. for 11 years since they came to the U.S. for her father to start his graduate study. After completion of his graduate study, he started working as a researcher, and the parents became permanent residents in the U.S. Nari and her younger brother were born in the U.S. and began their initial schooling in the U.S. During school break, the family has visited Korea annually and stayed there for about a month each year. According to Nari's mother, Nari improved her Korean communicative skills while in Korea because she interacted with her grandparents and relatives. The parents think that visiting Korea once in a while provided Nari with a great opportunity to learn about and practice Korean in a context where Korean was exclusively used. Nari identified herself as a balanced bilingual. But, she felt a little more comfortable using Korean than English and was more confident when speaking Korean than English. She considered her Korean to be fluent and her English to be proficient.

“Teaching Korean is more important than English.” Nari's mother believed that learning Korean was significant for Nari since it was her HL, which she had to fully master as a Korean:

Learning Korean and having fluent Korean proficiency are highly important for my children. I believe that they *must be* (my emphasis) fluent in Korean. It is a shame that

my children do not speak Korean well. Accordingly, our role as parents is very important to our children. We are the only one who can stimulate them to use Korean. My children wouldn't have much opportunity to use Korean unless they have our enforcement to use it. Thus, we are very important people for our children to teach Korean by using it and asking them to use it all the time at home.

As her response displays, Nari's parents not only greatly valued teaching Korean to their children but thought they had a strong responsibility to teach Korean.

The mother also conjectured that because Nari would become an English dominant speaker in her future, it was important for them to emphasize educating her in Korean:

It seems that Nari is more fluent in Korean than English right now, but I know that she will develop English in a faster rate.... Although we focus on the Korean language, she is going to be dominant in the English language anyway as she lives in this English-speaking country and attends schools in the U.S. This is the reason why my husband and I pay more attention to teaching Korean (than teaching English).

Valuing literacy development beyond communicative skills. Nari's parents believed that both communicative and literacy skills were important for learning language(s). The mother mentioned that she tried to pay attention to Nari's Korean literacy learning beyond her Korean oral proficiency. According to her, the main reason for the parents to send Nari to the Korean language school was to teach Korean literacy skills:

Nari can learn and develop speaking and listening (in Korean) at home by interacting with us (her husband and her), but it is difficult for us to improve her literacy skills. We believe that reading and writing should be learned in a formal school setting in a more structured way.

The mother stated that she felt sorry for immigrant Korean children who barely read and write in Korean:

I have seen many cases that second-generation Korean immigrant children eventually lose their HL. I think I understand the phenomenon, but I feel sorry and pity for them.

Positive perspectives towards raising child as bilingual. Nari's mother was the respondent who believed in the most advantages of raising her child as bilingual among the mothers of the first-grade students. The mother did not see any challenges or disadvantages to Nari learning two languages simultaneously. She addressed:

We are not worried or concerned about our child's language learning either in Korean or English. We know that it takes time. Instead of concerning about Nari's different developmental stage for each language, we rather anticipate her future when she becomes full-fledged bilingual.

Nari, a fluent Korean speaker, predominantly used Korean. The mother's journals reported that Nari used Korean 100 percent of the time at home when she communicated with family members and engaged in at-home activities. According to the mother's journals, Nari tended to have lots of conversations with her mother in the car on her way to or from school. The mother mentioned that although Nari was engaged in school activities exclusively in English, when she told her parents what happened at school, she always used Korean to describe the events in detail.

The mother's journals often showed how Nari utilized her Korean language repertoires when she was in an English context. For example, when the family went grocery shopping, the mother observed that Nari only used Korean to refer to the items that were displayed on the shelves in the store. When the family went to the fruit section, the mother asked Nari which

fruits she wanted to have, Nari answered “bananas” and “oranges” in Korean. The two words are English loan words; thus, Koreans adopt the same words but say them with Korean pronunciation. Although many Korean-American children tend to say English loan words using the English pronunciation even in their Korean speech, Nari’s mother observed that when Nari said the two words in her Korean speech, she did not follow the original Romanized pronunciation, but said them with Korean pronunciation.

Independent and proficient Korean reader. According to the mother’s journals, Nari often chose to read Korean picture books by herself at home. The mother detected that Nari preferred reading Korean books to English ones by self-choosing from both English and Korean books. During her independent reading, Nari often asked her mother for help when she found unknown Korean words. The mother usually explained the meanings of unknown words by providing synonyms or example sentences. But, once Nari’s mother asked her whether she could conjecture the meaning of the unknown word by rereading the passage, Nari was able to determine the meaning of the unknown word. Also, the mother reported that she usually asked Nari about to tell the stories when she finished reading them, explaining:

Nari retells the story of the books using Korean only when she reads Korean books.

When she was being asked to retell the story of English books, she is also able to retell the stories in Korean except names of the characters and locations that were addressed in English originally in the books.

According to the mother, Nari demonstrated her reading fluency and comprehension by retelling the stories accurately.

Conscious about writing in Korean as much as possible. The mother’s journals showed how Nari engaged in writing practices when she kept her diary entries in Korean for the Korean

school homework. According to one of the mother's journals, Nari asked her mother whether she was allowed to write her foreign friends' names in English while she was writing in her diary. Although the mother said it was okay to write their names in English, Nari momentarily stated that she could write them in Korean. As already displayed and discussed in Excerpt 33, Nari wrote her English name using Korean letters based on how it is pronounced in English. The mother reported that Nari checked with her mother to see if she transcribed her English name correctly by using Korean letters. The mother's journal substantiated the fact that Nari engaged in the cognitive process of thinking about whether she should write English names using the English alphabet or whether she should write them in Korean.

Another example from the mother's journals displays Nari's consciousness about using Korean in her diary. Once Nari asked her mother about how to write the words "monkey bar" in Korean for her diary. Instead of transcribing the word in Korean by reflecting on the English phonetic sounds, as she did for her English names, Nari asked her mother for the corresponding word in Korean. According to the mother, Nari assumed that there was a word in Korean for the word "monkey bar" and wanted to write the Korean word in her diary.

Using Korean with family members but English to talk to herself. Nari's mother reported that Nari used Korean primarily when she talked to her parents and younger brother. The mother stated that Nari seemed to understand the appropriate language to use when she spoke to her interlocutors by considering their language uses and preferences. Once when Nari talked to her grandparents in Korean by using Skype, the grandmother asked her to sing a song that she had learned in her American school. Nari responded that she would sing a song that she had learned in the Korean language school because her grandparents would not understand her if she sang a song in English. This example indicates that Nari identified her interlocutors (her grandparents)

and their language use, which led her to decide to sing a song in the language that they could understand. Yet, Nari's mother sometimes heard Nari using English when she talked to herself or expressed emotions that she felt. The mother shared:

Nari used Korean all the time when she talked to us, her younger brother, and her grandparents. Although she always used Korean, I occasionally overheard Nari said something to herself in English. When she expressed her feelings or emotions, she tended to instinctively use English.

This finding indicates that Nari, who used Korean predominantly when interacting with her family members, sometimes thought and expressed herself in English as a proficient English speaker.

Summary

This chapter illustrates the ways in which four first-grade Korean emergent bilingual students used Korean and English in their oral and written responses at a Korean HL School. Three students (Joon, Yuri, and Rena) identified themselves as English proficient, and one student (Nari) saw herself as more proficient in Korean than English. The three English proficient students often included English (speech that included all English or English word level translanguageing when they engaged in verbal interactions (85%, 79%, 79%, respectively) in the Korean language classroom, but their use of English (written sentences that included all English or English word level translanguageing) was less observed in their writing (23%, 26%, 42%, respectively) than their spoken language since they appeared to understand that writing was a more formal activity than speaking. In terms of their translanguageing practices, it was found that the English proficient students often engaged in translanguageing practices, and the four different

functions – sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural knowledge – were discovered in their oral and written language use.

In terms of the first-grade English proficient students' oral language use, their translanguageing was most likely to function as sociolinguistic competence (49%, 48%, 57% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively), followed by metalinguistic awareness (32%, 36%, 27%), metacognitive insight (10%, 7%, 10%), and sociocultural knowledge (9%, 9%, 6%; see Figure 1 in Appendix A). The English proficient students' translanguageing functioned as their sociolinguistic competence when they flexibly chose the lexical items from their two languages, had quicker lexical access to a particular language, borrowed lexical items for unknown equivalent words, expressed bilingual identities, and varied their language use according to the interlocutors. Their translanguageing also demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness when they created new meanings of words, elaborated on their understanding of concepts, and controlled their language use. The findings further revealed that they engaged in translanguageing when they used their metacognitive insight through inner speech. Lastly, the English proficient students' translanguageing functioned as their sociocultural understanding when they used culturally familiar or relevant words.

In terms of the English proficient students' written language use, their translanguageing was most likely to function as sociolinguistic competence (50%, 64%, 70% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively), followed by metalinguistic awareness (41%, 30%, 25%), sociocultural knowledge (7%, 4%, 5%), and metacognitive insight (2%, 2%, 0%) (see Figure 2 in Appendix A). The English proficient students' translanguageing in writing functioned as their sociolinguistic competence when they flexibly chose the lexical items from their two languages, had quicker lexical access to a particular language, borrowed lexical items for unknown equivalent words or

unsure spelling. The written translanguage pattern was analyzed as the students' metalinguistic awareness when they identified their own language use and regulated their language choices for different places during compositions. Their translanguage in writing also functioned as their metacognitive insight when they added the word from the other language after they engaged in self-talk or when they engaged in inner speech during the process of writing. The students' translanguage in writing lastly functioned as sociocultural knowledge when they provided English sentences and translanguage into Korean words or phrases for cultural purposes to utilize their Korean cultural knowledge to add clarity. In other words, the first-grade English proficient students flexibly utilized their language and linguistic repertoires from their two languages by engaging in translanguage practices.

On the other hand, the first-grade Korean proficient student, Nari, consistently stayed in Korean when she spoke (93%) and wrote (99.5%) although she occasionally spoke English depending on the setting (e.g., during recess) and her interlocutors (e.g., when responding to English proficient peers). There was evidence of Nari's translanguage, but the pattern of her translanguage was different from its use by the English proficient students since Nari used it when she 1) repeated others' words that were in English and 2) spoke words that do not exist in Korean. In terms of her written translanguage, only one sentence included an English word out of her 207 Korean sentences. Writing the English word appeared to be inevitable for Nari since she introduced her English name; however, she wrote it in Korean first by using Korean letters based on its English pronunciation and then provided it in English later within the parenthesis. She also wrote other English words (e.g., YMCA, playdate, waterpark, and gymnastics) using Korean letters based on how they are pronounced in English. Nari was aware that composition for Korean language school should be written in Korean, and she tried to use

her Korean linguistic knowledge for the particular English words when writing. The examples suggest that Nari was able to utilize her sociolinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic awareness through translanguaging when she wrote English words in Korean. Indeed, although Nari identified herself as Korean proficient, her language use findings indicate that she appeared to be bilingual in Korean and English.

The chapter also displays mini-case studies of three students (Joon, Rena and Nari) to learn about their parents' attitudes and actions towards their child's language use as well as to provide other socio-cultural influences on their language use. The finding indicates that there was a close relationship between the parents' attitudes and practices at home and the children's language use and learning. For instance, among the four first-grade parent participants, Nari's parents appeared to be the most supportive of their child's Korean language learning and believed that teaching HL to their child was of the greatest significance. The parents also accepted the responsibility to teach her Korean as they had positive perspectives towards raising Nari as bilingual. In contrast, Rena's parents appeared to be the most supportive of their child's English use and emphasized her English language learning. For Rena's parents, learning English was obligatory, but Korean was an extra language; thus, it was not mandatory for Rena to acquire perfect Korean proficiency. Indeed, Nari was the student who rarely translanguaged and stayed in Korean predominantly when speaking and writing, but Rena was the English proficient student who presented her oral and written responses most often in English. Therefore, the findings suggest that parents' attitude towards HL learning was a significant factor in maintaining and developing children's HL. It was further discovered that several sociocultural factors (e.g., family's immigration status and future residency, amount of interaction with other

Korean relatives, role of siblings) influenced the participating bilingual students' language use and learning.

Chapter 5

Third-Grade Bilingual Korean Students' Language Use

This chapter addresses Research Question 3 by presenting the third-grade Korean students' use of Korean and English when they orally communicated and wrote at the Korean HL School. The chapter begins with the students' views about their language use, preferences, and proficiencies. Then, an analysis of their oral language use and translanguaging is presented, followed by an analysis of their written language use and translanguaging. A summary of the findings concludes the chapter.

Third-graders' Views of Their Language Use, Preference, and Proficiency

Table 7 shows the third-graders' immigration status, and how they self-reported their home language use, language preferences, and language proficiencies. All the students answered that they primarily used Korean with their parents at home. However, the three Korean-American students – Toni, Julie, and Suji – preferred speaking in English to speaking in Korean and identified themselves as English proficient. In contrast, Mina, who recently came to the U.S., preferred speaking in Korean and regarded herself as Korean dominant. I refer to the students who preferred to speak English as English proficient, and the student who preferred to speak Korean as Korean proficient.

Table 7

Third-graders' Self-Reports Regarding their Language Use, Preference, and Proficiency

	Immigration status	Home language use	Language preference	Language proficiency
Toni	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Mostly Korean with parents and grandparents; Mainly English with friends	English	Proficient in English; low-intermediate in Korean speaking and limited in Korean reading and writing

Table 7 (Continued)

Julie	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Mainly Korean with parents; Predominantly English with younger sister and friends	English	Proficient in English; Intermediate in speaking Korean but limited in Korean literacy
Suji	Korean-American; born in the U.S.	Korean with parents; English with younger brother and friends	English	Proficient in English; acceptable to communicate in Korean but limited in Korean literacy
Mina	Korean (temporarily resided in the U.S.)	Exclusively Korean with parents and younger brother	Korean	Fluent in Korean; low-intermediate in English

The three English-proficient students thought their Korean skills were acceptable for oral communication but limited for reading and writing in Korean. For instance, Toni stated, 저는 한국말은 very good 한거 같지는 않아요, 그래도 다른 Korean이랑 대화할 때는 괜찮다고 생각해요. 그래도 한글 읽기 쓰기는 어려워요 [My Korean is not really good, but it is okay to communicate with other Koreans. But, reading and writing in Korean are difficult].

Julie also described her Korean reading and writing as limited, but thought her oral Korean was okay because she practiced it with her parents:

저는 한국말 reading, writing 잘 못해요. 그런데 한국말로 말하는거는 좀 잘해요 왜냐하면 엄마 아빠랑 한국말로 말하고 practice 많이 해서요 [I am not good at Korean reading and writing, but speaking Korean is okay because I use Korean with my parents and practice it].

On the other hand, Mina saw herself as a fluent Korean speaker whose English proficiency was improving the longer she stayed in the U.S.:

영어는 어렸을 때부터 영어유치원 다니면서 배웠는데 그래도 영어는 조금 어려운 언어 같아요. 그래도 미국와서 몇달동안 있고 매일 사용하니까 영어를 좀 더 잘해지고 있어요 [English is a little difficult for me although I learned English when I was very young in English kindergarten (in Korea). But I am getting better in English since I have stayed here for several months and have used English more].

One reason for the difference in the students' language preferences and proficiencies might have been their immigration status. The three students who identified themselves as English proficient were second-generation Korean-Americans who were born in the U.S., whereas Mina was a recent immigrant student who had been born in Korea.

Third-graders' Oral Language Use in the Classroom

Table 8 displays the third-graders' oral language use when they engaged in classroom interactions. The table shows the pattern of language use by each student and his/her translanguaging practices.

Table 8

Third-graders' Oral Language Use During Class Discussions

	Korean ^a	English ^b	Word-level translanguaging ^a (English words in Korean speech)	Word-level translanguaging ^b (Korean words in English speech)	Total	Frequency of translanguaging at sentence level ^c (Korean to English)	Frequency of translanguaging at sentence level ^d (English to Korean)
Toni	182 (51%)	32 (9%)	138 (38%)	8 (2%)	360 (100%)	19 times	11 times

Table 8 (Continued)

Julie	196 (49%)	38 (8%)	170 (41%)	9 (2%)	413 (100%)	13 times	13 times
Suji	167 (50%)	29 (9%)	131 (39%)	11 (3%)	338 (100%)	21 times	9 times
Mina	332 (90%)	16 (4%)	22 (6%)	0 (0%)	370 (100%)	5 times	6 times

^aSpoke exclusively in Korean. ^bSpoke exclusively in English. ^{c-d}Intra-sentential switching within a single utterance. ^{e-f}Inter-sentential switching between the utterances.

*Note: The students' use of sentence-level translanguaging was not counted in the total because the sentences were already included in the first two columns.

As shown in Table 8, the three English proficient students (Toni, Julie, and Suji) used more Korean (51%, 49%, 50%, respectively) than English (9%, 8%, 9%, respectively). Their overall language use indicates that they spoke in English less than 10 % of the time. This is an unexpected finding because they all responded that they preferred speaking in English and identified themselves as English dominant. One reason why the English proficient students might not have used much English during classroom interactions seemed to be that they were aware that they were supposed to use Korean in class. They often asked their teacher's (Ms. Joen) approval to use English when they spoke. For instance, when Ms. Joen asked Toni to provide additional information, he asked her permission to use English by saying, “그럼 내가 영어로 해야돼요. 해도 돼요?” [Then, I need to speak in English. Can I?]. Similarly, Suji asked Ms. Joen's permission about whether she and her classmates could use English during recess by asking, “우리 이제 영어로 말해도 돼요?” [Can we speak in English now?]. Although the three students rarely spoke completely in English, they sometimes used English word-level translanguaging in their Korean speech in the classroom (38%, 41%, 39%, respectively). In contrast, they tended to speak in English during recess. When they

translanguaged during recess, they sometimes inserted Korean words into their English speech.

Meanwhile, Mina, who identified as Korean proficient, spoke in Korean 90% of the time, and she rarely initiated her speech in English (4%). Only 6 % of her translanguaging was presented at the word level when she inserted English words into her Korean speech during recess.

Functions of oral translanguaging among the English proficient students. All of the English proficient students translanguaged some of the time. Close analysis of the English-proficient, third-graders' oral language use revealed that their translanguaging practices demonstrated 1) sociolinguistic knowledge, 2) metalinguistic awareness, 3) metacognitive insight, and 4) sociocultural understanding.

English proficient students' sociolinguistic competence. The third-grade English proficient students' translanguaging was classified as demonstrating their sociolinguistic competence when 1) they flexibly used their dual lexicon, 2) they had quicker lexical access to a particular language, and 3) they considered their different interlocutors. The sociolinguistic function characterized the majority of their oral translanguaging (63%, 61%, 60% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figure 3 in Appendix A). Although their translanguaging for this function was observed at the word- and sentence-levels, word-level translanguaging dominated their speech.

Excerpt 34 below shows that Suji used the translanguaging strategy in her utterances when she responded to Ms. Joen's question. Suji replied in Korean but inserted several English words ("bunny", "right", "lie", and "turtle") and the phrase ("to save his life"). Although Suji engaged in translanguaging to complete her statements, her use of translanguaging was not because she didn't know all the vocabulary in Korean. In the transcript below she used the word

“turtle” and the phrase “to save his life” in both Korean and English. Her use of English words in her Korean speech demonstrated that she sometimes utilized her dual lexicon when she spoke (Underlining in the translation highlights the English words inserted into Korean).

Excerpt 34. Flexible use of bilingual lexicon

1. Ms. Joen: 누가 나쁜짓을 한거지? 토끼야 거북이야? [Who did a bad thing? The rabbit or turtle?]
2. Suji: 거북이가 나빠요. 나는 bunny 가 right 한거같애. 토끼는 lie 했는데 to save his life 한거고, 그런데 turtle 은 용왕님때문에 거짓말한거예요. bunny 는 lie 안하면 죽으니까... [The turtle. I think the bunny was right because he lie[d] to save his life, but the turtle did it for the sea god. If the bunny didn't lie, he would die...]

Excerpt 35 shows an example of quicker lexical access by Julie. In response to Ms. Joen's question about a Korean folktale, *The Rabbit and Tortoise*, Julie answered in Korean but inserted several English words. Although Julie's responses showed English word-level translanguaging (“turtle”, “high prize”, and “lie”), she provided these words in Korean (“거북이”, “벼슬”, and “거짓말”) in subsequent statements, indicating that she knew them.

Excerpt 35. Quicker lexical access in a more proficient language

1. Ms. Joen: 토끼가 꾀를 부려서 거짓말한거는 어떻게 생각해 잘한거야? [What do you think about rabbit when he lied to turtle to trick him? Did he do a good job?]
2. Julie: 잘못된거 왜냐하면 거짓말 자체가 나쁘니까. Turtle 은 high prize 벼슬

받으려고 lie 한거예요. 그래서 거북이가 나빠요. [He did a bad thing because lying itself is bad. The turtle lied because he wanted to get a high prize. That's why the turtle is bad.]

During the interview, Julie stated that she used English words because she thought of them before she thought of the Korean words, “왜 나하면 제가 English words 로 먼저 더 빨리 생각하고 그 다음에 Korean 으로 생각해서요” [Because I was able to quickly think about some words in English, then later in Korean].

Excerpt 36 shows how two of the English proficient students used translanguaging when they interacted with different interlocutors. When the class had pizza for snack during recess, Julie mainly used English. But when Ms. Joen asked her a question in Korean (turn 2), Julie replied in Korean by translanguaging (turn 3). Similarly, when Toni reacted to Suji's answer (turn 4), he used English, but right afterwards he switched to Korean to speak to Ms. Joen (turn 5). Julie and Toni's language use in this excerpt seemed to demonstrate that they switched their languages by considering their different interlocutors (Korean teacher vs. English proficient peers).

Excerpt 36. Interlocutor's influence on translanguaging

1. Julie: I don't like pineapple pizza. I want to eat pepperoni pizza.
2. Ms. Joen: 왜 파인애플 싫어해? [Why do you hate pineapples?]
3. Julie: 파인애플 좋아하는데 근데 여기 피자에 있는거는 싫어요. [I like pineapples, but do not like pineapples on pizza.]
- ...
4. Suji: I have allergy to pineapples. I can touch them but can't eat them.
5. Toni: Wow. Really? Allergy to pineapples? Hmm... 선생님, 갈릭 소스 더 주세요.

[Teacher, can I have more garlic sauce?]

English proficient students' metalinguistic awareness. The metalinguistic functions of translanguaging were displayed by the English proficient students when they 1) demonstrated their comparative linguistic knowledge of Korean and English, 2) ensured understanding of unknown words, 3) identified the language that the audience(s) used, and 4) controlled their language use when making jokes. The English proficient students' translanguaging sometimes functioned as metalinguistic awareness (31%, 33%, 32% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively), and it was often observed at the word-level rather than sentence-level (see Figure 3 in Appendix A).

Excerpt 37 shows how the English proficient students used a translanguaging strategy when they engaged in the class discussion about the differences between the Korean and English languages. Their use of translanguaging demonstrated that they were using their metalinguistic awareness by applying their prior knowledge about speaking and writing in the two languages. Julie utilized her knowledge of English when she stated that English has intonations (turn 2). Toni then distinguished the written features in English and Korean when he pointed out that English has capital letters (turn 5). Suji indicated that cursive writing is unique to the English language (turn 6). In their responses, they translanguaged into English to identify the specific language features (“intonation”, “capitals”, and “cursive”) that exist only in English compared to Korean.

Excerpt 37. Applying metalinguistic knowledge to compare the differences between

Korean and English

1. Ms. Joen: 한글과 영어의 다른점에 대하여 얘기해볼래? [Can we discuss the differences between the Korean and English languages?]

2. Julie: 영어는 올라갔다 내려갔다 intonation 이 있어요. [English has up and down intonation.]
3. Toni: 쓰는 것도 달라요 [Writing is also different.]
4. Ms. Joen: 그렇지 쓰는것도 다르지. 한글이랑 영어 쓰는게 어떻게 다르지? [Yes, you are right. How do the writing systems differ?]
5. Toni: 영어는 capital 로 시작하는데 한글은 그게 없어요. [English sentences should be initiated with capitals, but Korean does not.]
6. Suji: 영어 cursive 하는 것도 있고 cursive 하는 거 저 진짜 좋아해요. [English has cursive. I like writing cursive. I like it a lot.]

Excerpt 38 shows how Julie used translanguaging to ensure her understanding of an unknown Korean word. When Ms. Joen asked who was guilty in the story (turn 1), Julie was not sure if she knew the correct meaning of the Korean word “죄” [guilty]. Thus, Julie used English to confirm her definition of the word (turn 2). When Julie received Ms. Joen’s confirmation (turn 3), she provided her answer in Korean by using the word “guilty” in Korean (turn 4).

Excerpt 38. Ensuring understanding of an unknown word

1. Ms. Joen: 그럼 누가 죄를 지은거야? [Then who was guilty?]
2. Julie: 죄는 is it the person who has guilty? Like bad person? [Guilty means – is it the person who has guilty?]
3. Ms. Joen: 응. 누가 더 나쁜짓을 한거지? [Yes, who did the wrong thing?]
4. Julie: 죄는 거북이가. 거북이가 나쁜짓 한거예요. 토끼 속이고 하고 lying 하고 했으니까... [The turtle was guilty. He did a bad thing because he deceived the rabbit and lied.]

During the interview, Julie told me that she purposefully used English to make sure that she understood the Korean word correctly, explaining:

저는 영어로 물어 봤어요 왜냐하면 이 한국말 뜻이 맞는지 확인하려고
영어를 사용해서. 그리고 나서 한국말로 대답했어요. [I asked a question in
English because I wanted to make sure that I knew the meaning of the Korean
word correctly by using English. After that, I gave my answer in Korean].

Excerpt 39 shows a similar pattern of translanguaging by Toni. When Ms. Joen asked the class a question about a Korean biography (turn 1), Toni raised a question about the meaning of the word “다짐” [pledge]. Then Toni used English to ask whether his definition of the word was correct (turn 2). When Ms. Joen confirmed that his definition was correct (turn 3), Toni translanguaged back to Korean to provide his answer (turn 4).

Excerpt 39. Ensuring understanding of the unknown word

1. Ms. Joen: 이 황은 어떤 다짐을 했나요? [What did Lee Whang pledge?]
2. Toni: 다짐이 모예요? Is it like what did he decide? [What is pledge? Is it like what did he decide?]
3. Ms. Joen: 응 맞아. 기억나? [Yes. Do you remember?]
4. Toni: 오늘 배운것은 오늘 다 익히자 라고 했어요. [He decided that he would study what he learned on that day.]

Excerpt 40 displays Suji's use of translanguaging to identify the audience's language use. In line 2, Mina answered Ms. Joen's question about the rabbit's trick in a Korean folktale, *The Rabbit and Tortoise*. After listening to Mina's response, Suji asked Ms. Joen a question by using Korean, but then translanguaged into English to speak to the rabbit (turn 3).

Excerpt 40. Identifying the character's language use

1. Ms. Joen: 토끼는 어떤 피를 부린거지? [What trick did the rabbit do?]
2. Mina: 토끼가 간을 두고 왔다고 피를 부렸어요. [He said that he didn't bring his liver with him.]
3. Suji: 근데 선생님 토끼가 간을 어떻게 두고 다녀요? 토끼, you CAN'T just leave your liver. [But, teacher, how can the rabbit leave his liver? Rabbit, you CAN'T just leave your liver.]

Suji's translanguaging pattern in this excerpt is interesting because her audience – the rabbit (the character in the book) – does not exist in reality, but she chose English to speak to the rabbit.

During my interview with Suji, she explained why she used English to speak to the rabbit:

저는 토끼가 영어로 말한다고 pretend 했어요. 그리고 한국말은 하나도 모른다고... 왜냐하면 영어는 세계 사람들이 다 사용하는 언어지만 한국말은 아니니까. [I just pretended that the rabbit only speaks English and does not know Korean at all...because English is the worldwide language that almost everyone knows, but Korean is not.]

Excerpt 41 illustrates another example of Julie's use of translanguaging to illustrate her metalinguistic knowledge. In this example, she regulated her language use to make a joke. When Ms. Joen heard a noise that the preschoolers were making in the hallway outside of the classroom, she said, "Preschoolers are young so they are noisy" (turn 1). Julie asked Ms. Joen "Are the preschoolers young?" in Korean and translanguaged into English to say that "they (the preschoolers) are 20 years old, and we (the third-graders) are three years old" (turn 2).

Excerpt 41. Regulating her language use to make a joke

1. Ms. Joen: Preschooler 이면 몇살이지? 어리니까 시끄럽지 [How old are the preschoolers? They make noise since they are young].
2. Julie: Preschooler 가 어려요? Preschooler 들은 20 years old and we are three years old (laughs) [Are preschoolers young? Preschoolers are 20 years old and we are three years old].

English proficient students' metacognitive insight. The English proficient students' metacognitive skills were witnessed when they engaged in self-thinking processes through inner speech. However, since I was not the teacher for the third-grade students, it was difficult to capture data on the third-graders' inner speech from the audio-recordings of their class interactions. However, there was one example of Toni's use of translanguaging in his talk that revealed his metacognitive insight (1%) (see Figure 3 in Appendix A). Excerpt 42 shows that Toni engaged in private speech through translanguaging. When Ms. Joen complimented Mina's drawing (turn 1), Toni responded to Ms. Joen in Korean (turn 2) but switched to English to talk to himself (turn 3).

Excerpt 42. Private speech to himself

1. Ms. Joen: 애들아, 미나 그림 그린것 좀 봐. 진짜 잘 그렸지? [Look at Mina's drawing. Isn't it really great?]
2. Toni: 우와! 네. 진짜 같아요. [Yes, it is really great.]
3. Toni: (to himself, aloud) Oh, my gosh. She is so good at drawing. I am gonna steal your hands and draw (laughs).

In the above example, Toni appeared to move from interpersonal dialogues with Ms. Joen to intrapersonal speech (to himself). That is, Toni's use of Korean to respond to Ms. Joen

(interpersonal dialogue) and use of English for covert speech illustrate his metacognitive insight during the process of verbalization.

English proficient students' sociocultural knowledge. The English proficient students' translanguaging rarely functioned as sociocultural knowledge (5%, 6%, 8% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively; see Figure 3 in Appendix A). The following list of examples (Example 9) shows how the English proficient students utilized their sociocultural knowledge by inserting culturally related Korean words or phrases when they spoke in English. (Bold font shows the words that the students code-mixed in Korean)

Example 9. Third-graders' use of Korean words for culturally appropriate referents

- A. Suji: Do you have 색종이? I need a 색종이, the yellow one. [Do you have **origami paper**? I need a[n] **origami paper**, the yellow one.]
- B. Toni: No, this is true because 선생님 said this. [No, this is true because **my teacher** said this].
- C. Julie: I have 한복, but it is too small for me now. [I have **traditional Korean clothes**, but it is too small for me now.]

As shown in example A, Suji asked the question in English but used the Korean word for “origami paper.” In Korea, origami is a popular classroom activity. The Korean language school provided colored origami sheets to each class so that the students could play with them during recess or during class. Thus, the students were familiar with using it as well as the term for origami in Korean.

In Example B, Toni refers to the Korean teacher (Ms. Joen) by using the Korean word for teacher. Unlike students in the U.S. who call their teachers by their last names, Korean children are supposed to use the term “teacher” to refer to their teachers. This example illustrates that

Toni was using his sociocultural knowledge by translanguaging the culturally specific term into Korean.

Julie's statement in Example C shows a similar pattern since she also inserted a culturally specific Korean word into her English utterances. The Korean word “한복” describes traditional Korean clothes that people wear on holidays in Korea. Julie uttered this word in Korean when she saw the illustrations in a book that depicted Koreans wearing traditional clothes. Her use of this specific Korean word in her English indicated that she was communicating sociocultural knowledge from Korea when she translanguaged.

Functions of translanguaging by the Korean proficient student. There were a few times when Mina, the Korean proficient student, used translanguaging in her oral speech (6%). Her use of translanguaging displayed that she was sociolinguistically competent (73%) and metalinguistically aware of her languages (24%) (see Figure 3 in Appendix A).

Excerpt 43 shows how Mina translanguaged into English when she interacted with her English-proficient peer, Suji. Mina asked a question to the class in Korean by code-mixing the word “cursive” in English. Suji replied in Korean but soon translanguaged into English when she asked Mina a question (turn 2). Then Mina replied back using English (turn 3). This example illustrates Suji's influence on Mina's language use. Similar to the previous example, this excerpt demonstrates that Mina conformed to a principle of *code alignment* (Sayer, 2011) and responded to her interlocutor's language use by translanguaging.

Excerpt 43. Translanguaging into English when the interlocutor translanguaged

1. Mina: 대문자 G 를 cursive 할 때 어떻게 써요? [How can I write cursive for the capital G?]
2. Suji: 나알아. Let me give you a hand. Do you know how to write “s”? [I know. Let

me give you a hand. Do you know how to write “s”?”]

3. Mina: Yes. S is easy. I know how to write a lower case s....

Similar to the English proficient students, who often engaged in translanguaging across their two languages, Mina’s oral language examples in Excerpts 43 and 44 illustrate that she was able to flexibly switch her languages according to her interlocutors (the English proficient peers) as well as the context (during recess). Although Mina appeared to be more proficient in Korean than English and self-identified herself as Korean dominant, her instant and flexible use of English implies that she was sociolinguistically competent in her two languages and metalinguistically aware of her language use.

Mina’s language use during the class sessions displayed that she primarily used Korean and translanguaged into English occasionally. However, during recess, she used English to speak with the English proficient third-graders. Excerpt 51 shows how Mina spoke in English when she conversed with her English proficient peers during recess. The students were randomly asking Siri funny questions. Mina successfully joined the conversation by engaging in *code alignment* practice (Sayer, 2011) by following the language (English) that her classmates used, which indicates that she was using her sociolinguistic knowledge.

Excerpt 44. Using English for code alignment

1. Julie: How old are you?
2. Suji: Where are you at? Who are you?
3. Mina: Are you a boy or a girl?
- ...
4. Suji: Where is my mom right now?
5. Mina: Where do I live?

Third-graders' Language Use When Writing

The third-graders' writing samples were analyzed focusing on their language use as well as the patterns and functions of their translanguaging. The students used much less translanguaging when writing than they did to orally communicate. Table 9 shows each student's written language use in class and for diary writing as homework.

Table 9

Language Use in Third-grade Students' Writing Samples

	Total number of writing samples	Korean only sentences	English only sentences	Word-level translanguaging (English words in Korean sentences)	Word-level translanguaging (Korean words in English sentences)	Total	Translanguaging at sentence level ^a (Korean to English)	Translanguaging at sentence level ^b (English to Korean)
Toni	34	276 (91%)	0	26 (9%)	0	302	0	0
Julie	31	253 (88%)	0	38 (12%)	0	291	0	0
Suji	32	265 (85%)	3 (1%)	46 (13%)	0	311	3	0
Mina	36	459 (93%)	0	31 (7%)	0	490	0	0

Note. The numbers of the students' written sentences were counted in the table. ^aThe frequency of the third-graders' sentence-level translanguaging from Korean to English. ^bThe frequency of the third-graders' sentence-level translanguaging from Korean to English.

As shown in Table 9, the three English proficient students were more likely to stay in Korean when they wrote, compared to when they spoke. Toni wrote in Korean 91% of the time, compared to 51% of the time when he spoke in Korean. Similarly, Julie and Suji wrote in Korean 88% and 85% of the time, respectively, but used less Korean (49% & 50 %) when they spoke. Although the students occasionally used English during Korean compositions, their use

of translanguaging was at the word level, and the presence of sentence-level translanguaging was rarely observed (except for one case by Suji; see Excerpt 49). In contrast, Mina, the Korean proficient student, produced her written responses by using only Korean for her in-class writing. However, analysis of her diary writing samples showed the presence of English translanguaging at the word level (7%).

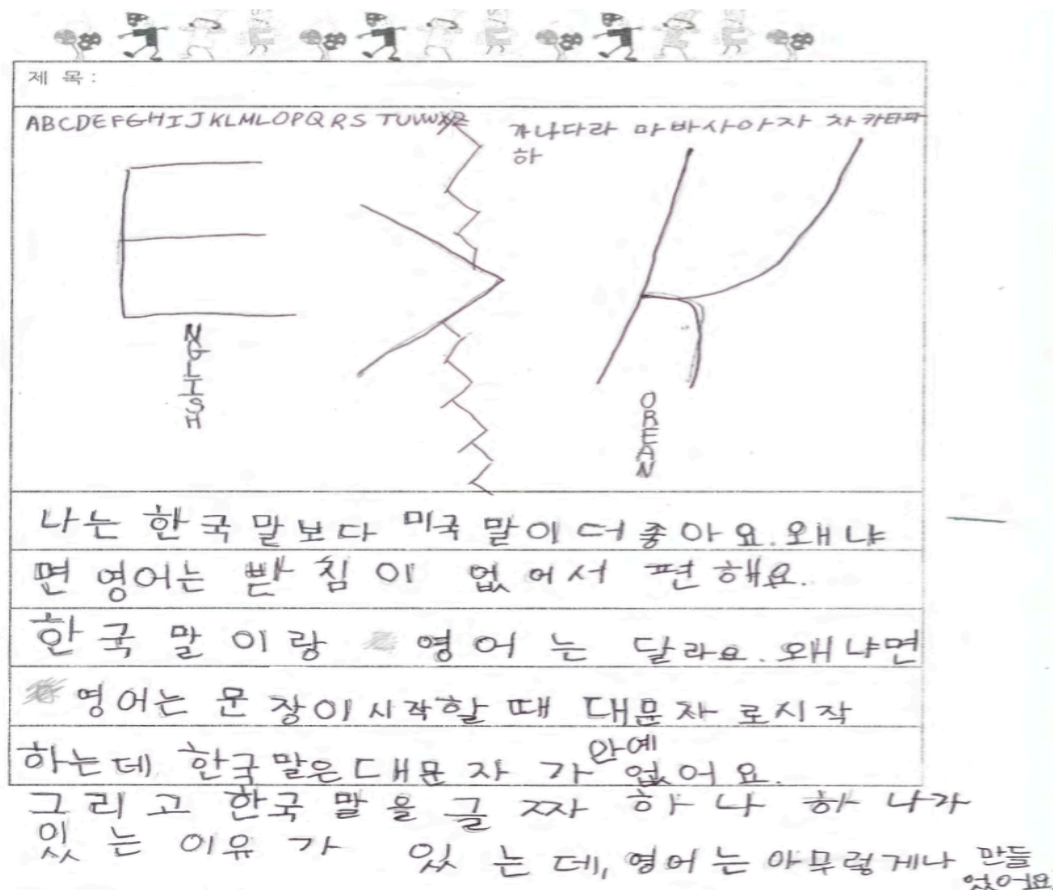
The translanguaging functions characteristic of the English proficient students' writing. The third-grade English proficient students' use of translanguaging was less observed in their writing than their oral language data; however, they still occasionally demonstrated word-level translanguaging in their writing samples (9%, 12%, and 13% for Toni, Julie, and Suji, respectively). Their use of translanguaging in their writing was analyzed according to the following four categories: 1) sociolinguistic knowledge, 2) metalinguistic awareness, 3) metacognitive insight, and 4) sociocultural understanding.

English proficient writers' sociolinguistic knowledge. Half or a bit more than half of the English proficient students' translanguaging in writing functioned as sociolinguistic competence (50%, 51%, 54% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figure 4 in Appendix A). An example of their use of translanguaging to represent their sociolinguistic competence occurred when they flexibly operated their dual lexicon.

Excerpt 45 shows Julie's writing sample when she wrote about the differences between Korean and English. As shown, Julie composed her texts using Korean only. But, close analysis of her caption writing shows the presence of translanguaging. Before the text, Julie wrote the word "English" on the left side and the word "Korean" on the right side to differentiate the two languages. Then she presented the symbol (>) to indicate that she liked the English language more. Julie wrote English letters (a,b,c,d...) under the word "English" and Korean letters

(가, 나, 다...) under the word “Korean.” Julie’s translanguaging illustrates how she identified different linguistic features from the two languages by using her sociolinguistic knowledge (the English translation of the writing sample is at the end of the excerpt.)

Excerpt 45. Using linguistic features from both languages (or dual lexicon)

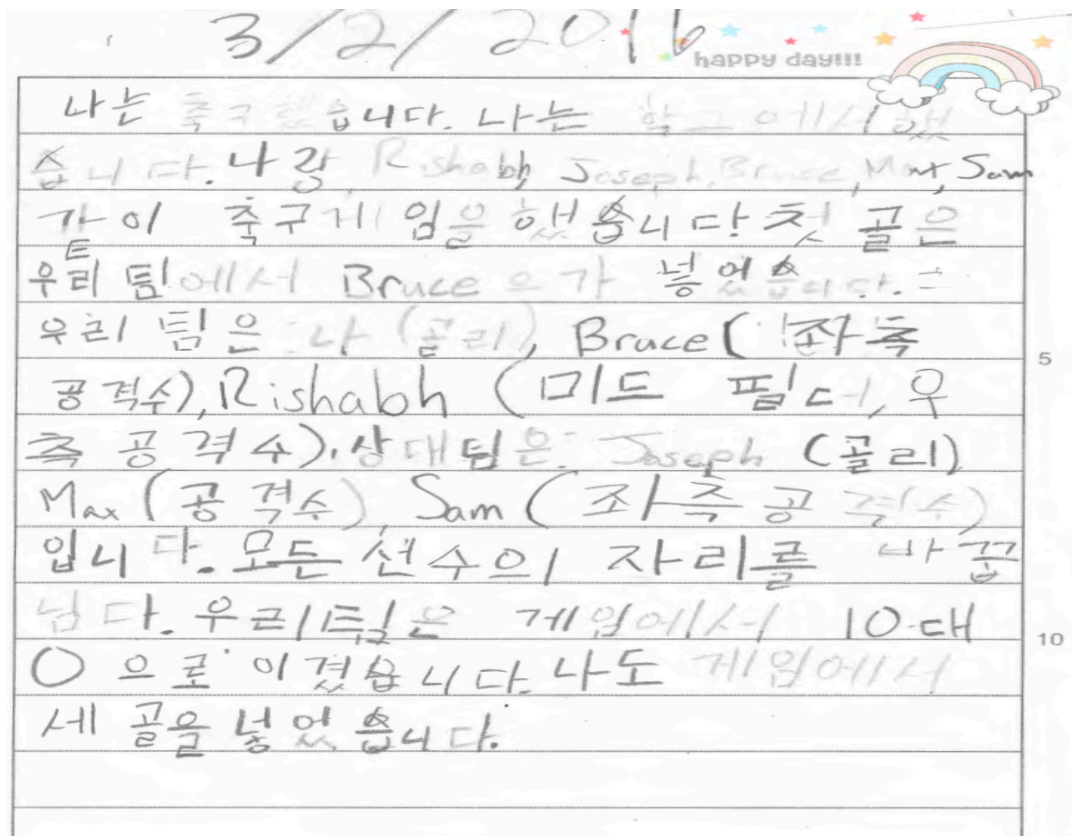


I prefer the English language to the Korean language. English is easy because it does not have *batchips* [Korean consonants placed under the vowels]. Korean and English are different. English has capital letters, but Korean does not have them. And Korean has individual meaning in each letter, but English words can be made by combining letters.

Excerpt 46 shows Toni’s diary entry, in which he reveals that he was using his sociolinguistic knowledge when translanguaging. In the diary, Toni wrote about when he played soccer with his friends and explained the positions for each player. Close analysis indicated that he used English for his foreign friends’ names, which made sense because they all used English

names. However, although he exclusively spoke in English when playing with his English-speaking friends, he wrote each player's soccer position in Korean. In fact, there is a trace of Toni writing the word "left" in English for the position "left forward," but he erased it and rewrote the equivalent word in Korean. Toni's writing sample below provides evidence of how he manipulated his sociolinguistic knowledge when writing.

Excerpt 46. Using Korean linguistic knowledge by translanguaging



I played soccer. I played it at school with Rishabh, Joseph, Bruce, Mat, and Sam. Bruce from my team got the first goal. My team members were me (goalie), Bruce (left-forward), and Rishabh (Mid-fielder; right-forward). The opponents' team consisted of Joseph (goalie), Max (forward), and Sam (left-forward). Each player switched his position each game. My team won the game by a score of 10 to 0. I got three goals.

Toni utilized his sociolinguistic knowledge to write the players' positions in Korean because, as he stated during the interview, he knew how to say the positions in Korean:

저는 여기 친구들 이름 영어로 썼어요 왜냐하면 애네들은 영어 이름을 사용하니까...그런데 여기 축구 포지션은 제가 한글로 어떻게 말하는지 알아서 한글로 썼어요 [I wrote their names in English because they use English names... but for the positions, I wrote them in Korean because I know how to say them in Korean.]

English proficient writers' metalinguistic awareness. The three English proficient students mainly used Korean when they composed the bodies of the texts, and wrote titles and captions in English when they included drawings. This translanguaging pattern exemplified the students' metalinguistic understanding since they were able to identify their own language use and regulate their language choices for different purposes in their compositions. Their translanguaging in writing sometimes functioned as their metalinguistic awareness (42%, 40%, 37% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively), and was found at the word-level (see Figure 4 in Appendix A), except for three examples of sentence-level translanguaging by Suji (from Korean to English).

Table 10 shows the third-grade students' use of Korean and English in their texts and captions. Similar to the first-grade students' findings, the third-grade English proficient students often used translanguaging when they presented captions (44%, 52%, 60% for Toni, Julie and Suji, respectively), whereas their use of translanguaging was less observed in the body of their writing (18%, 13%, and 9%, respectively). In addition, they also composed all in Korean (the body of texts and captions) without utilizing the translanguaging strategy in writing (38%, 35%, and 31%, respectively). Mina's writing samples showed a similar pattern to those of the English proficient students, as she wrote 89% of her texts in Korean, with 11% translanguaging in her texts and captions. But close analysis of her caption writing showed that she used less English in

her captions (17%) than the other English proficient students (44%, 52%, 60%). None of the third-graders wrote the texts in English with captions in Korean.

Table 10

Third-graders' Use of Korean and English in the Texts and Captions

	Writing texts and captions in Korean (no translanguaging)	Writing in Korean with captions in English	Translanguaging in writing & captions	Total
Toni	13 (38%)	15 (44%)	6 (18%)	34 (100%)
Julie	11 (35%)	16 (52%)	4 (13%)	31 (100%)
Suji	10 (31%)	19 (60%)	3 (9%)	32 (100%)
Mina	26 (72%)	6 (17%)	4 (11%)	36 (100%)

Note. The numbers in the columns indicate the number of writing samples that the third-graders provided.

Excerpt 47 displays Suji's writing sample, which shows how she used Korean for one purpose and English for another purpose, demonstrating her metalinguistic awareness. Suji wrote her diary entirely in Korean, whereas, all her captions were written in English. In her written text, she used Korean to write the words and phrases that had appeared in the English captions, which demonstrates that she knew the words and phrases in both languages. Suji also wrote questions in English under her drawing asking, "is it good? Yes or no. Circle one. Yes or no."

Excerpt 47. Using metalinguistic awareness to distinguish places for texts and drawings



제 목	아빠의 생일									
아빠	의		생	일	이	어	서	요		
마	의	는	케	익	을		마	의	어	요
아빠	의		선	명	도		사	의	요	
아빠	는		이	제		39	살	이	01	요
아빠		생	일		39	살	이	01	!	

Title: My dad's birthday

Today was my dad's birthday. We ate a delicious cake. I bought a birthday gift for him. My dad turned 39 years old. Happy birthday to my dad!

In the interview, Suji explained that she understood that she had to write in Korean for her diary, but thought she could use English when it was not part of her diary (e.g., providing captions in the space for the drawings):

저 여기에 이 질문을 나한테 한거예요. 제가 그린 그림을 어떤지 평가하려고.

그래서 이거는 제 다이어리 아니라서 영어로 했어요. 여기는 그림 그리는 자리고

여기는 글씨 쓰는 자리예요. [I asked this question (the yes/no question) to myself to evaluate my drawing here. This is not the part of my diary, so I used English. This (the left side) is a place for drawing, and this (the right side) is a place for writing in Korean.]

Suji's diary entry in Excerpt 48 presents a similar pattern. In this writing sample, Suji only wrote in Korean and provided all her captions in English. However, it is interesting to see that in her Korean sentences, she presented English words by using Korean letters. For instance, when she wrote "Rockefeller center," "skates!" and "Legos," she converted English phonetics to Korean pronunciation with Korean characters. Yet, she wrote these words in English when she provided captions for her drawings. It is plausible to assume that Suji consciously distinguished where Korean should be used and where the captions should be written in English.

Excerpt 48. Writing captions in English but texts in Korean



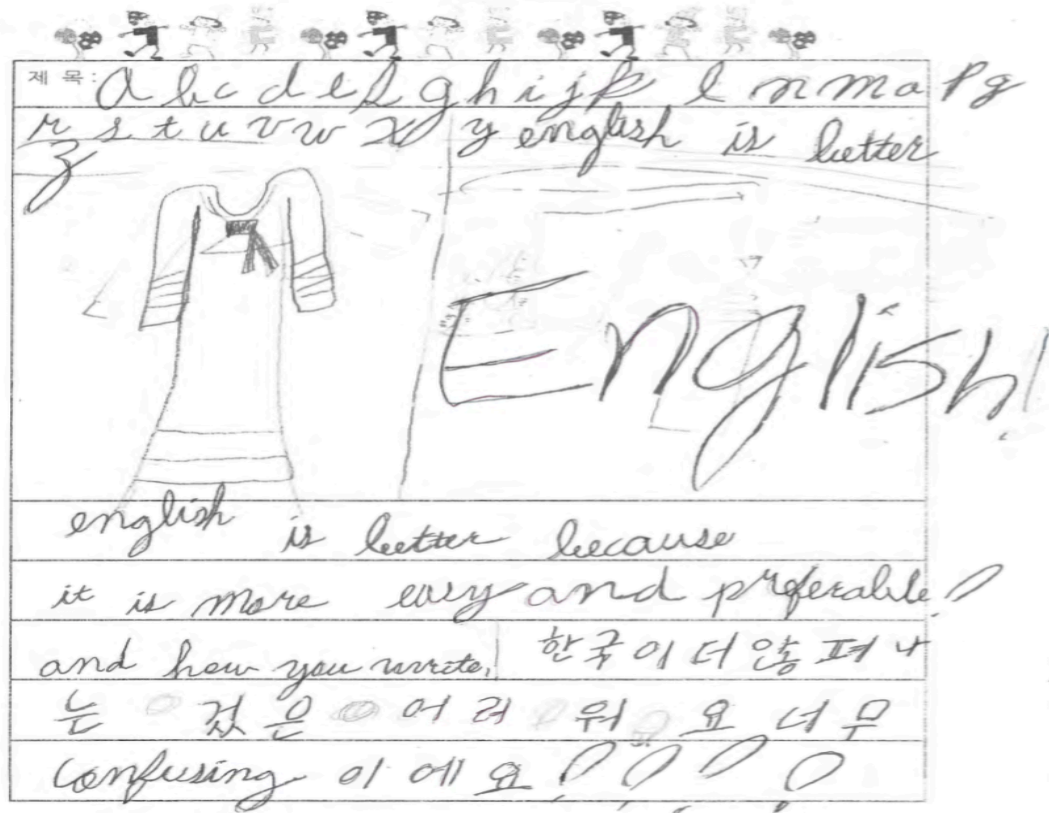
제	목	스케이팅 이랑 레고									
각	필	러		센	터	에	서		스	케이	이
트	2		타	어	요	.	그	다	음	어	는
레	고		스	토	어	가		요	어		있
어	서		트	어	가	어	요	.	레	고	가
만	디		있	있	어	요	.	레	고	를	
사	어	요	,	진	자	.	재	미	있	어	어
요	.										

Title: Ice skating and Legos

I ice skated at the Rockefeller Center. There was a Lego store next to the center, so we went there. There were a lot of Legos. I bought Legos. It was very exciting.

In Excerpt 49, Suji engaged in writing by using English first, and then translanguaged into Korean to complete the second part of her writing. This pattern (switching the languages during composition) was observed in the first-graders' writing, but was an unusual finding for the third-graders. Close analysis of this particular writing sample reveals that Suji used English when she wrote about the English language and Korean when she wrote about the Korean language.

Excerpt 49. Writing in English about the English language and writing in Korean about the Korean language



English is better because it is more easy and preferable! and how you write *[sic]*. The reason why Korean is not easy is Korean is very confusing!!!!

Suji explained during the interview that she was composing in the language she was thinking about:

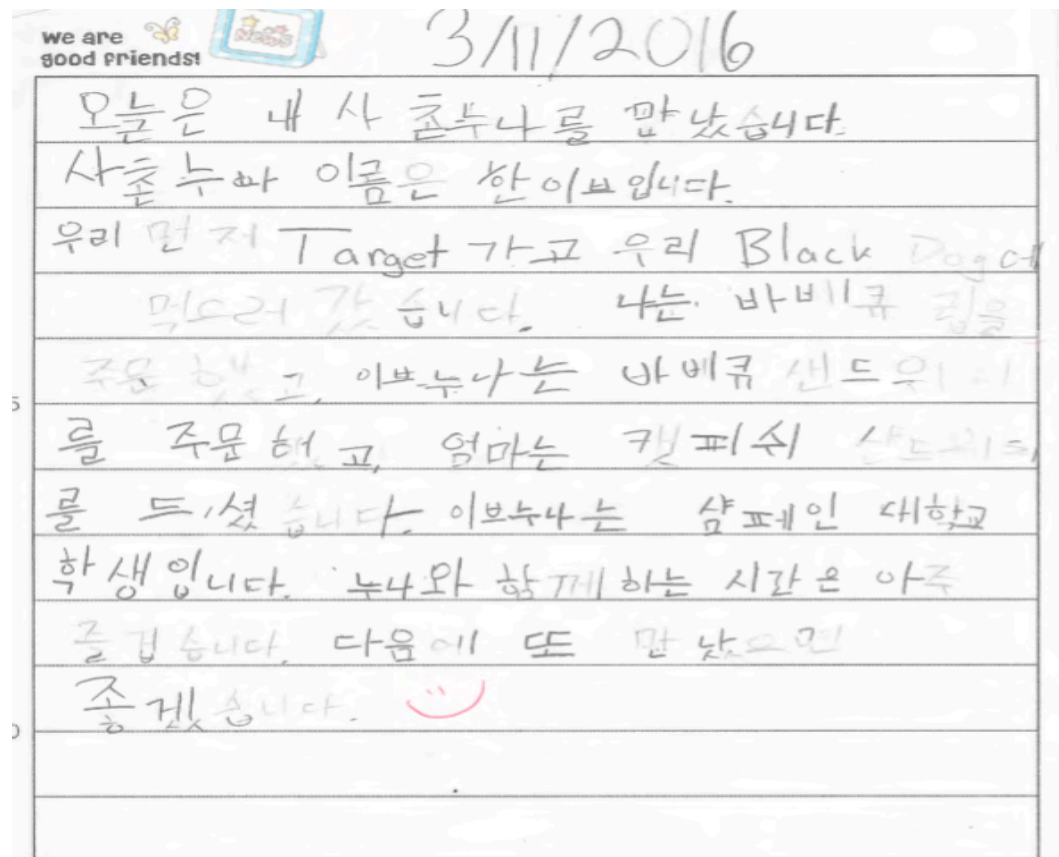
저는 여기 글쓰기 할 때 영어에 대해 생각할 때는 영어로 쓰고, 한국말에 대해 생각할 때는 한국말로 썼어요. [I wrote in English when I thought about the English language, and I wrote in Korean when I thought about the Korean language.]


Suji's writing in this excerpt, along with her explanation, illustrate that she is a bilingual writer who demonstrated metalinguistic insight when she utilized the translanguaging strategy.

A similar finding was observed in Toni's diary entry in Excerpt 50. Toni wrote his diary in Korean except for two English words: "Target" and "Black Dog." The word "Target" is the

name of a store in the U.S., and “Black Dog” is the name of a restaurant; both are proper nouns. Toni seemed to naturally translanguage when he wrote these words in his writing. However, when he wrote other English words, he wrote them by using Korean characters. For example, he wrote the English words “barbeque ribs” and “catfish sandwich” using Korean letters.

Excerpt 50. Using metalinguistic insight when writing proper nouns



we are good friends!  3/11/2016

오늘은 내 사촌누나를 만났습니다.
 사촌누나 이름은 한이브입니다.
 우리 먼저 Target 가고 우리 Black Dog에
 먹으러 갔습니다. 나는 바비큐 립을
 주문 했고, 이브누나는 바비큐 샌드위치
 를 주문했고, 엄마는 캣피쉬 샌드위치
 를 드셨습니다. 이브누나는 샴페인 대학교
 학생입니다. 누나와 함께하는 시간은 아주
 즐겁습니다. 다음에 또 만났으면
 좋겠습니다. 😊

I met my cousin today. Her name is Eve Han. We went to the Target store and the Black Dog restaurant. I ordered Barbeque rib and my cousin ordered barbeque sandwich. My mom ate catfish sandwich. My cousin is a college student. I enjoyed spending time with her. I would like to see her soon again.

In the interview, Toni explained that the proper nouns (Target and Black Dog) did not represent their literal meanings. In contrast, the other words were names of particular food items, and their meanings would not change when written in the two languages:

저는 여기에 영어로 썼어요 왜냐하면 제가 한글로 쓰면 그 meaning 이 달라질 수 있어요... like black dog 같은거는 완전히 다른 뜻이 돼요. 그리고 target 도요. 그런데 다른 단어들은 제가 영어로 써도 뜻이 똑같아요. 왜냐하면 같은 뜻이 하나밖에 없어서. [I wrote them in English because if I wrote them in Korean, the meaning could be different ...like black dog would be a totally different meaning. And target, too. But the rest of the words would be the same even if they were written in Korean because there is only one meaning for those words].

Toni's explanation indicates that he understood that the meanings of some English words would be comprehensible when written with Korean characters, but others would not. His explanation about his language choice demonstrated that his use of translanguaging was purposeful and demonstrated his metalinguistic awareness.

English proficient writers' metacognitive insight. As stated earlier, since I was not the teacher for the third-grade students, it was difficult to collect data on the third-graders' inner speech during their writing in class. However, there was one example of Toni's use of translanguaging in his diary that revealed his metacognitive insight. In his diary entry, Toni introduced his cousin's names in English *and* Korean at the beginning of the entry, but he only used his cousin's Korean name when he referred to him in the rest of his diary. Indeed, after introducing both names (in English and Korean), there was a trace of his using the English name, which Toni erased, later replacing it with the Korean name. During the interview, Toni explained:

저는 영어 이름을 먼저 떠올렸어요 왜냐하면 원래 영어이름으로 불러서. 근데 지우고나서 한국이름으로 다시 바꿔서 썼어요 왜냐하면 이거는 제 한글 다이어리라서 한글을 써야돼요 [I came up with the English name first because I call

him by the English name, but I erased it and rewrote it with his Korean name because this is my Korean diary writing, so I thought that I had to write in Korean].

When Toni switched his cousin's name from English to Korean, it appeared that he was using his metacognitive insight as he was monitoring and controlling his language use. Toni's statement during the interview suggested that he understood that he *had to* use Korean for his cousin's name by recognizing that he was writing his diary in Korean. This example demonstrates that Toni was able to manipulate his cognitive process and thinking through translanguaging, which implies that he was metacognitively competent.

English proficient writers' sociocultural knowledge. The third-grade English proficient students' use of translanguaging for the sociocultural knowledge function occurred when they wrote the bodies of texts in Korean and captions in English. Since they did not produce any main texts in English (except for one case by Suji), only a few written translanguaging examples were found for this function (4%, 9%, 9% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively), and all occurred at word-level as they inserted culturally relevant Korean words into their English captions (see Figure 4 in Appendix?).

Excerpt 51 displays Julie's use of translanguaging to demonstrate her sociocultural knowledge when she provided captions in English for places (such as, Chicago trip, museum, shopping center, hotel, and inside the restaurant) and captions in Korean for her family members ("mom", "dad", and "younger sister").

Excerpt 51. Using Korean for culturally relevant words



My family went to Chicago. I went to a museum with my mom, dad, and younger sister, and we saw many things there. We ate pizza and salad at the restaurant. I was full because I ate a lot. I went shopping with my mom. My mom bought pretty clothes for me. We went to the hotel and stayed a night there.

Captions in drawing: Chicago trip, Museum, Shopping center, Hotel, Inside the restaurant
엄마 [mom], 아빠 [dad], 동생 [younger sister], and 나 [me]

Julie's explanation of her language use showed that she chose to use Korean to refer to her family because Korean represented her sociocultural upbringing:

나는 엄마라고 부르는게 좋아요. 왜냐하면.. 내가 mom 이라고 하면 나는 엄마랑 좀 먼거 같이 느껴져요. [I prefer to call mom in Korean. Because...if I call mom (in English), I feel like I am not that close to her].

Excerpt 52 exhibits a similar translanguaging pattern in Suji's diary writing. Suji wrote her diary entry by using Korean but chose to use both languages for her caption writing. She

provided several captions in English (“School event”, “fun”, and “Yay”). However, she provided captions in Korean for the words related to Korean culture (“설날” [Korean New Year’s Day], “한국음식” [Korean food]), and switched languages, using English verbs and Korean nouns with cultural references (“making 복주머니” [lucky bag; symbols of luck in Korean], “wearing 한복” [traditional Korean clothes], and “재기 making” [Jegi; the tool for a Korean traditional game]). The translanguage phrases that included culturally specific Korean words indicated that Suji was employing her sociocultural knowledge for the particular lexical items.

Excerpt 52. Using Korean for culturally relevant words



제 목		학교 행사									
오	늘	은		학	교	에	서		을	격	설
은		맛	아		만	은		재	미	있	는
것	들	이		있	었	어	요		만	도	
만	들	기		재	기		만	들	기		복
주	머	니		만	들	기		한	복		입
는		것	도		있	었	어	요		참	
재	미	있	었	어	요		엄	마	가		와
서		도	와	주	었	어	요		우	리	가
만	든		만	들	도		만	었	어	요	

Title: School Event

Today we celebrated the Korean New Year's Day at my school. There were many interesting things – making dumplings, making Jegi [the tool for Korean traditional game], making lucky bag [symbols of luck in Korean], and wearing Hanbok [traditional Korean clothes]. It was very fun. My mom came to help us. We ate the dumplings that we made together.

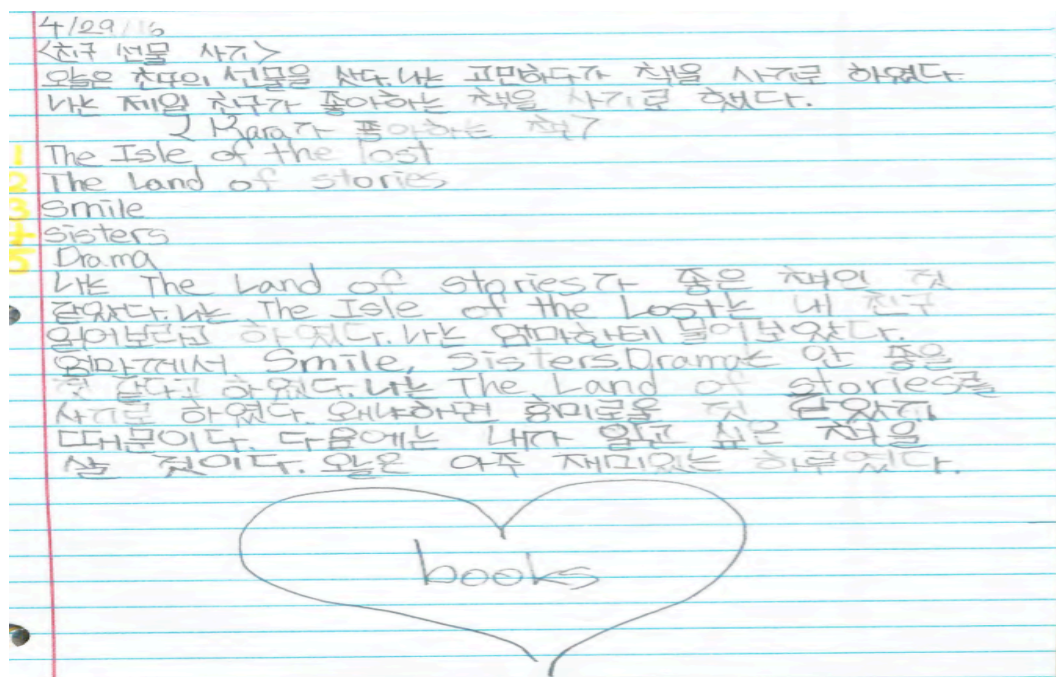
Captions in drawing: 설날 [Korean New Year's Day], School event, 한국 음식 [Korean food], Korean Food, 재기[Jegi; the tool for Korean traditional game] making, making 복주머니 [lucky bag; symbols of luck in Korean], wearing 한복[traditional Korean clothes], Fun Yay!

Similarly, Toni's diaries showed that when he translanguaged, he utilized his sociocultural knowledge. For example, Toni wrote about when he "hung out" with his American-born cousin who was older than him. As stated earlier, there is a referent "형 [hyung]" in Korean that male brothers need to use to call older male brothers or close relatives instead of directly using their first names. Whenever Toni referred to his cousin in his diary entries, he used the term "형 [hyung]" in Korean after his name. Toni is the only child who did not have brothers, but he knew how to properly use the referent for his Korean cousin who was older than him. This example illustrates that Toni appeared to translanguage into Korean to reflect appropriate sociocultural knowledge.

Functions of written translinguaging by the Korean proficient student. Mina's language use in her writing samples was presented in Table 9. Mina mainly composed in Korean (459 out of 490 sentences; 93%) when she engaged in in-class writing and wrote her diary entries. Only 7 % of her sentences included English words (31 out of 490 sentences) throughout her writing samples. Although Mina occasionally used English word-level translinguaging in her Korean writing, unlike the English proficient students, all of Mina's translanguageed English words were influenced by the U.S. context (e.g., the name of the place or her foreign friends, book or movie titles). Mina seemed to accept that she could use English words while writing in Korean if the words only existed in English.

Excerpt 53 shows Mina's writing sample where she inserted English words into Korean sentences. Mina used English words for the titles of English books that she had thought about buying for her friend as a birthday present.

Excerpt 53. Using sociolinguistic knowledge through translinguaging for words that are originally in English



Title: Buying a birthday present for my friend.

I bought a birthday gift for my friend. I decided to buy a book for her. I wanted to buy a book that she liked the most.

<The book that Kara likes>

1. The Isle of the Lost

2. The Land of Stories

3. Smile

4. Sisters

5. Drama

I thought that *The Land of Stories* is the best. I asked her to read *The Isle of the Lost*. I asked my mom and she told me that *Smile*, *Sisters*, and *Drama* are the good ones. I decided to purchase *The Land of the Stories* because it looked interesting to read. I will buy a book that I want to read for the next time. Today was a very interesting day.

Caption: books

During the interview with Mina, she explained that she wrote the English titles because they originally were in English, and she was worried she would change their meanings if she translated them into Korean:

저는 이것들이 영어 책이라서 영어로 썼어요. 그리고 어떨때는 영어를 제가

한국말로 바꾸면 그 원래 뜻이 사라질 때가 많아요. [I wrote them (the list of books)

in English because they are originally written in English. And I know that sometimes if I translate them, the original meanings are easily changed].

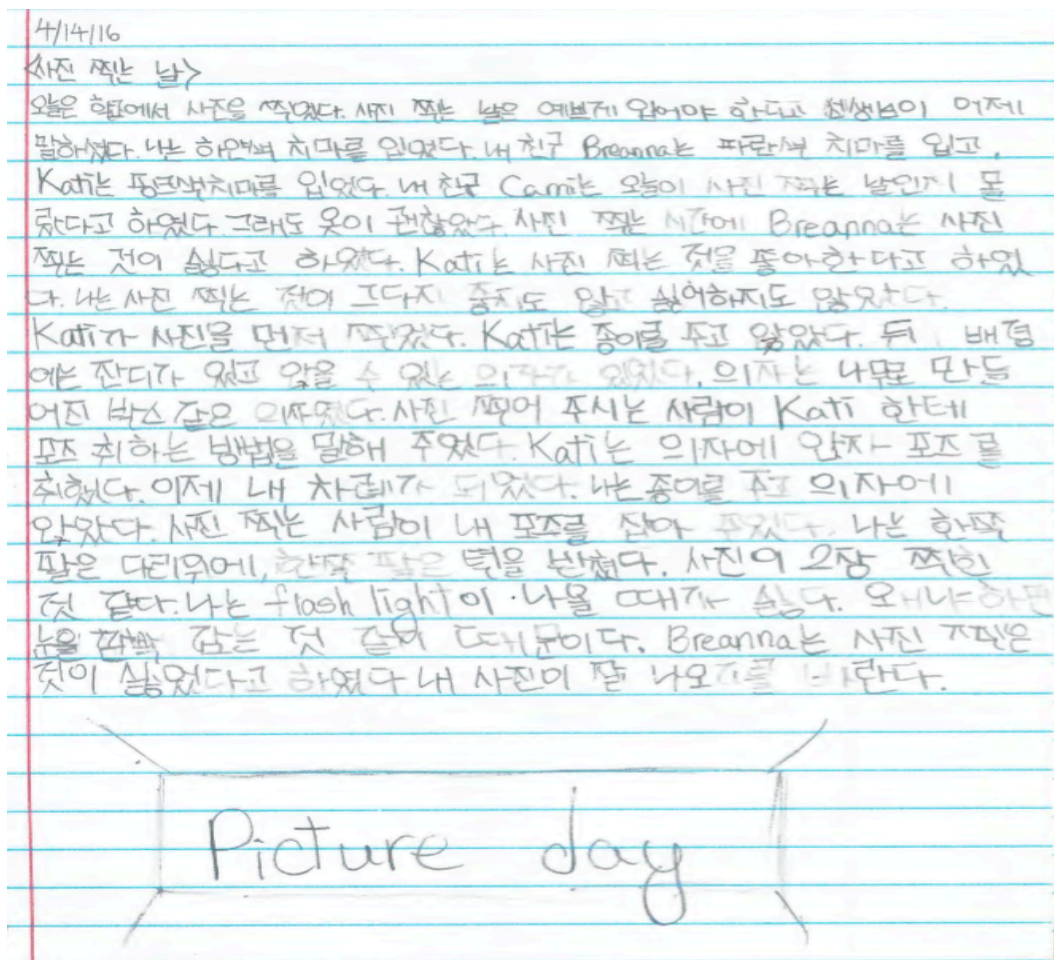
From her response, Mina seemed to understand that translanguaging in writing is acceptable if 1) the writer is using a word or words originally written in English and 2) when translation does not maintain the original meaning. Mina's translanguaging into English in this example demonstrated her sociolinguistic knowledge.

In the same excerpt, Mina also wrote a caption in English ("books" within the heart shape) but wrote the same word in Korean in her text. This indicates that Mina appeared to understand that she had to write the main texts in Korean, but the captions could be written in English. As the other third-grade English proficient students showed, Mina's translanguaging

demonstrated her metalinguistic awareness when she differentiated her language use for the main text and captions.

Excerpt 54 also shows that Mina clearly differentiated between writing texts in Korean and captions in English. In this example, Mina wrote a diary entry about what she did on picture day in her American school. In her texts, she wrote all in Korean except for her friend names (“Kati” and “Breanna”) and the English loan word (“flashlight”). She wrote the phrase “Picture day” in English in the caption but wrote the same phrase in Korean in the body of her diary.

Excerpt 54. Using metalinguistic awareness for caption writing



Title: Picture day

Today was my school Picture Day. Yesterday my teacher said that we were supposed to be dressed up for the Picture Day. I wore a white skirt. My friend Breanna wore a blue

skirt, and Kati wore a pink skirt. Cami told us that she did not know that today was the picture day, but her dress was pretty. Breanna told me that she did not like her picture taken, but Kati loved it. Kati took a picture first. She sat on the chair, and there was a green grass background next to the chair. The chair was made of wood, and it looked like a box. The photographer let Kati know how to pose for her profile photo, and Kati posed on the chair. I gave the waiting number ticket to the photographer and sat on the chair. I put one of my hands on my leg and rested my chin on my other hand. Two photos were taken. I did not like a shining flashlight on me because it made me close my eyes. I hope I come out well in the photos.

Caption: Picture day

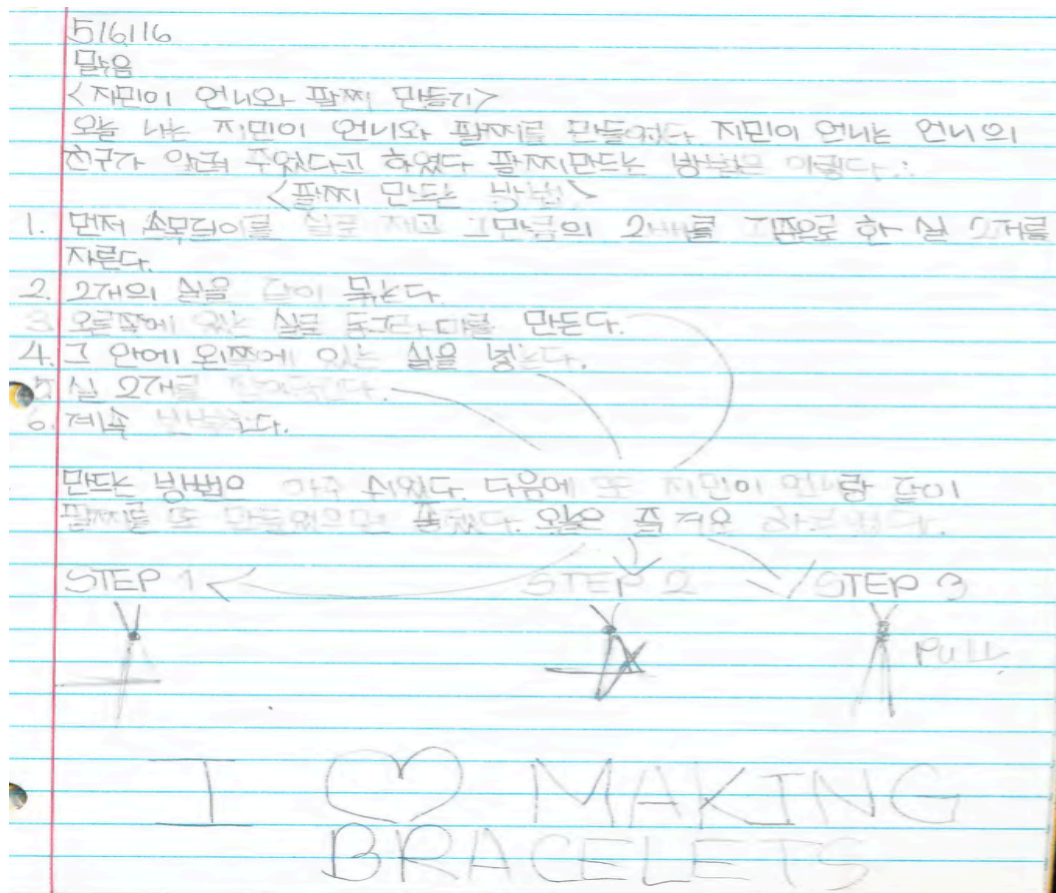
During the interview, Mina explained that she thought she could write the caption in English because she already had completed the diary entry in Korean, which she considered to be the required language at school:

저는 제 일기를 한글로 썼어요 왜냐하면 이거는 한글학교 숙제니까요. 그런데 제가 이것을 쓸 때는 저는 영어로 쓸 수 있다고 생각했어요 왜냐하면 저는 이미 한글로 제 일기 쓰는 것을 끝내서요. [I wrote my diaries in Korean because it is homework for the Korean language school. But when I wrote this (indicating her caption). I thought that I could write in English because I already had completed my diary in Korean].

Similar to the previous finding in Excerpt 53, Mina's statement illustrates that she was using her metalinguistic awareness to distinguish the places for writing in Korean and English.

Excerpt 55 below displays Mina's use of multimodality (Korean, English, and visuals) as part of translanguaging. Mina wrote a diary entry about when she made a bracelet and used Korean to describe how to make the bracelet. Then she provided captions in English with her drawings ("step 1", "step 2", "step 3", "pull", and "I love making bracelets"). Mina connected her written texts and drawings by using the arrow symbol.

Excerpt 55. Using multimodality to make meaning



Title: Making bracelets with Jimin

Today I made bracelets with Jimin. She told me that she learned how to make bracelets from her friend. This is how to make a bracelet.

<How to make a bracelet>

1. Measure your wrist using a string, and prepare two threads that are double the length of your wrist.
2. Tie the two threads to each other.
3. Make a circle using the right thread.
4. Put the left thread in the right circle-shaped thread.
5. Pull the two threads.
6. Repeat several more times.

Making a bracelet was easy. I want to make it again with her. I had a great time.

Captions: STEP 1, STEP 2, STEP 3, Pull, I LOVE MAKING BRACELETS

During the interview, Mina pointed out that she drew the illustrations to help Ms. Joen, who would read her diary, understand her writing and know how to make the bracelet:

팔찌 만드는데 글로 설명하기가 어려워서 여기에다가 그림을 그렸어요. 그래서

선생님이 보고 제가 쓴거 이해할 수 있고, 실제로 팔찌를 어떻게 만드는지도 이해할

수 있게 [Making the bracelet was difficult to explain in writing. So I drew the pictures to help my teacher understand what I wrote and how to actually make the bracelet].

Mina's statement illustrates that she believed her drawing could assist her writing. She further used the heart symbol in her English caption instead of writing "love" because she wanted to highlight how much she loved making bracelets. This example illustrates that Mina used multimodal semiotic resources (drawing and symbol) beyond the languages (Korean and English) when she delivered her messages in a written form. Overall, Mina's use of translanguaging during her writing process suggests that she borrowed her English linguistic knowledge when she inserted captions after completing the texts in Korean. She utilized her metalinguistic awareness because she was successfully able to distinguish the places for writing in Korean and in English. Overall, Mina's translanguaging mainly functioned as metalinguistic awareness (68%) and sometimes functioned as sociolinguistic knowledge (32%) (see Figure 4).

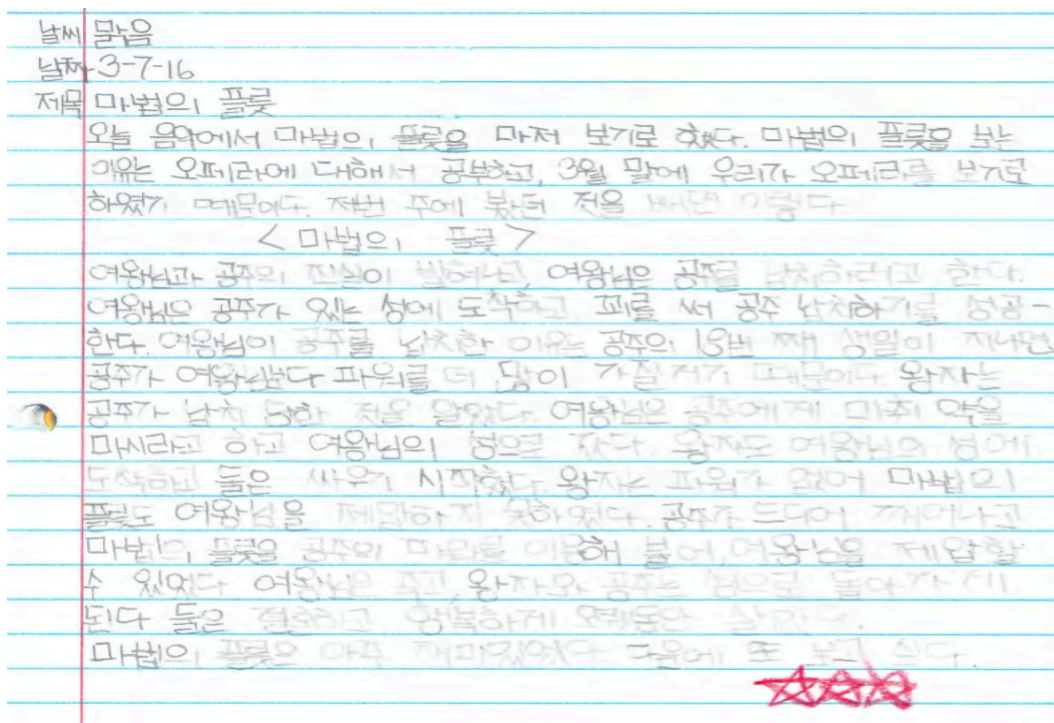
On the other hand, the excerpt below shows a different pattern in Mina's languaging practice because her diary does not show any presence of translanguaging. But it was revealed that Mina was engaged in a translanguaging practice before she wrote. In Excerpt 56, Mina wrote about the story of an opera that she had watched in her American school. Although Mina watched the opera in English, she was able to successfully compose the story in Korean. In responding to my question about how she was able to compose the story in Korean after acquiring the information in English, Mina answered:

저는 미국학교에서 그 오페라를 영어로 봐서 그 내용을 영어로 이해했어요. 제가 그거 봤을 때 한국말로 번역해서 이해하지 않았어요. 그런데 제가 이 내용을 한국말로 쓸 때는 한국말로 내용들을 바꾸고 나서 저는 이것을 한글로 쓴거예요. [I watched the opera in English in my American school so I understood the story in English.

I did not understand the story by translating it into Korean. But when I wrote about the story in Korean, I tried to translate the story into Korean and wrote it in Korean].

Mina's answer illustrates that although the voices of the characters in the opera were delivered in English, she was able to successfully write the story using Korean. Mina appeared to have engaged in heteroglossic practices (Bakhtin, 1981) because she was using diverse languages, registers, and codes when she remembered the story of the opera that she had learned in English to write about in Korean. Although there was no trace of translanguaging in her actual writing product, Mina seemed to be engaged in the translanguaging practice (e.g., translating the story from English to Korean) during her writing process.

Excerpt 56. Translanguaging as heteroglossia practice



Title: The magic flute

Today we watched the rest of the movie "The magic flute" that we couldn't finish last week in class. The reason why we watched "The magic flute" is to study about opera and then to watch opera in the end of March. The story that we watched last week is the following.

<The magic flute>

The truth between the queen and princess was revealed, and the queen tried to kidnap the princess. The queen arrived at the castle where the princess lives and kidnapped the princess by using a trick. The queen kidnapped the princess because the queen knew that the princess would become more powerful than the queen after her 18th birthday. The queen deceived the princess by giving her a sleeping pill, and the princess drank the pill. The prince knew that the princess was kidnapped by the queen. Thus, the prince went to the queen's castle and had a fight with the queen. However, the prince was not strong enough to win. Fortunately, the princess woke up and played her magic flute. The magic flute helped both prince and princess to defeat the queen. The queen died, and both prince and princess came back to their castle. They got married and lived happily after ever. The movie "The magic flute" was very interesting. I hope to watch it again later.

Summary

This chapter presents findings about four third-grade Korean emergent bilingual students' Korean and English language use when they spoke and wrote at a Korean HL School. Three students (Toni, Julie, and Suji) who identified themselves as English proficient, and one student (Mina) viewed herself as Korean proficient. The three third-grade English proficient students included English (speech that included all English or English word level translanguageing) when they engaged in verbal interactions (49%, 51%, 51%, respectively) in the Korean language classroom. They also included English (written sentences that included all English or English word level translanguageing) when engaging in writing tasks (9%, 12%, 14%, respectively). Similar to the first-graders' language use findings, the third-graders' use of English was less observed in their writing than their spoken language. Close analysis of their oral and written language use further displayed that the third-graders engaged in less translanguageing practices than the first-graders did. The older grade students seemed to be more cognizant of their language use and tried to meet their teacher's expectation by using Korean in the classroom. Yet, they still engaged in translanguageing practices, and four different functions – sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural knowledge – were discovered in their oral and written language use.

In terms of the third-grade English proficient students' oral language use, their translanguaging was most likely to function as sociolinguistic competence (63%, 61%, 60% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively), followed by metalinguistic awareness (31%, 33%, 32%), sociocultural knowledge (5%, 6%, 8%); and metacognitive insight (1%, 0%, 0%; see Figure 3). The third-grade English proficient students' translanguaging functioned as their sociolinguistic competence when they flexibly used their dual lexicon, had quicker lexical access to a particular language, and considered their different interlocutors. The students' translanguaging also demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness when they exhibited their comparative linguistic knowledge of Korean and English, ensured understanding of unknown words, identified the language that the audiences used, and controlled their language use. The findings further revealed that their translanguaging functioned as their sociocultural understanding when they used culturally familiar or relevant words. Lastly, there was only one example of translanguaging that functioned as metacognitive insight; Toni's oral language demonstrated his metacognitive insight through inner speech.

In terms of the third-grade English proficient students' written language use, their translanguaging was most likely to function as sociolinguistic competence (50%, 51%, 54% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively), followed by metalinguistic awareness (42%, 40%, 37%), sociocultural knowledge (4%, 9%, 9%), and metacognitive insight (4%, 0%, 0%) (see Figure 4 in Appendix A). The students' translanguaging in writing functioned as their sociolinguistic competence when they utilized their linguistic resources across both languages and flexibly operated their dual lexicon. The written translanguaging pattern was analyzed as the students' metalinguistic awareness when they identified their own language use and regulated their language choices for different places during compositions. Since I was not the teacher for the

third-graders, only one example of their (Toni's) metacognitive translanguaging through inner speech during writing was found. Toni demonstrated his metacognitive insight when he identified and regulated his language use during composition. The third-grade English proficient students' translanguaging in writing lastly functioned as sociocultural knowledge when they provided captions in English and translanguaged into Korean words or phrases for cultural purposes to utilize their Korean cultural knowledge. Only a few written translanguaging examples were found for the sociocultural function since the third-graders did not produce any main texts in English (except for one writing sample by Suji). Overall, the third-grade English proficient students did not often engage in translanguaging, especially when writing, but when they did so, they flexibly utilized their language and linguistic repertoires from their two languages through translanguaging.

On the other hand, the third-grade Korean proficient student, Mina, primarily used Korean when she engaged in speaking (90%) and writing (93%), but her use of English was detected occasionally. It was found that Mina translanguaged into English in order to speak with her English proficient peers during recess. Mina's oral language examples demonstrated that she conformed to a principle of *code alignment* (Sayer, 2011) by utilizing translanguaging, which indicate that she was sociolinguistically competent and metalinguistically aware of her languages. In terms of her translanguaging in writing, Mina engaged in translanguaging at word level only (7 %; 31 out of 490 sentences), and all of her translanguaged words into English were influenced by the U.S. context (e.g., names of places or her foreign friends, book or movie titles). Although Mina seemed to understand that she could write English words during Korean compositions if they only existed in English, the pattern and function of Mina's written translanguaging were different from those of the English proficient students, who presented English word-level

translanguaging for the words that also exist in Korean. In addition, Mina seemed to be engaged in the translanguaging practice during her writing process when she wrote about the opera in Korean, which she had watched in English, although there was no trace of translanguaging in her actual writing product. Mina's written language use indicates that Mina was able to utilize her sociolinguistic knowledge and metalinguistic awareness through translanguaging.

Chapter 6

Focal Students' Bilingual Language Use Over Time

This chapter addresses Research Question 4 by comparing the oral and written language use of two focal third-graders' (Spring 2016) to their previous language use when they were first-graders (Spring 2014) in order to understand to what extent the third-graders had undergone language loss or shift in their HL over the years. The chapter also addresses Research Question 5 by discussing interview results and journals for the mothers of the two focal third-graders to examine some of the factors that influenced the students' language use over time.

Characteristics of the Two Focal Students

Out of four third-graders who participated in this study, Toni and Julie were identified as focal students. Both Toni and Julie were former participants in my first-grade classroom in Spring 2014 and were included in my Early Research Paper.

Toni, the second-generation, male third-grader. Toni was born in the U.S. and considered himself to be English proficient. Toni's parents had lived in the U.S. for 14 years as permanent residents. During school breaks, the family visited Korea on an annual basis and stayed there for about a month each year. Toni's mother said that he improved his Korean communicative skills while in Korea because he had opportunities to meet and talk with his relatives and other Koreans.

Julie, the second-generation, female third-grader. Julie was born in the U.S. and considered herself to be English proficient. Julie's parents had lived in the U.S. for nine years. Julie's parents were obtaining their Ph.D. degrees and planned to get jobs in the U.S. Similar to Toni's family, Julie's family visited Korea on an annual basis during school breaks. Julie's

mother stated that visiting Korea provided Julie with a good opportunity to improve her Korean communicative skills and learn about her heritage culture.

Comparison of two focal students' oral language use between first- and third-grade.

Table 11 compares Toni and Julie's language use during classroom interactions when they were first- and third-graders. The table displays how often Toni and Julie used Korean, English, and translanguaging when they spoke in both grades.

Table 11

Comparison of Toni and Julie's Oral Language Use between First- and Third-Grade

		Only Korean	Only English	Word-level translanguaging ^a (English words in Korean speech)	Word-level translanguaging ^b (Korean words in English speech)	Frequency of TL at sentence- level ^c (Korean to English and vice versa)
1 st grade (Spring 2014)	Toni	36 (12%)	122 (41%)	138 (46%)	4 (1%)	91 times
	Julie	41 (13%)	98 (32%)	163 (53%)	6 (2%)	87 times
3 rd grade (Spring 2016)	Toni	182 (51%)	32 (9%)	138 (38%)	8 (2%)	30 times
	Julie	196 (49%)	38 (8%)	170 (41%)	9 (2%)	26 times

Note. ^aIntra-sentential switching within a single utterance when the students inserted English words as they spoke in Korean. ^bIntra-sentential switching within a single utterance when the students inserted Korea words as they spoke in English. ^cInter-sentential switching between the utterances (Korean to English and vice versa).

More oral Korean in third-grade. As shown in Table 11, when Toni and Julie were in first-grade, they both spoke more in English than in Korean (41% in English vs. 12% in Korean for Toni; 32% in English vs. 13% in Korean for Julie). However, their third-grade language use

revealed that they spoke more in Korean than in English (51% in Korean vs. 9 % in English for Toni; 49% in Korean vs. 8% in English for Julie). Both Toni and Julie still engaged in word-level translanguageing when they were in third-grade, but the frequency of inserting English words when they spoke in Korean decreased (from 46% to 38% for Toni; from 53% to 41% for Julie). The frequency of their sentence-level switching (from Korean to English and vice-versa) was also less observed in their third-grade classroom (from 91 to 30 times for Toni; from 87 to 26 times for Julie). In other words, there was increased use of Korean and a decrease in their use of English when they were in third-grade compared to when they were in first-grade.

Development of vocabulary knowledge in Korean. The focal students' increased vocabulary knowledge in Korean appeared to play a role in their increased use of Korean as third-graders. Comparison of Julie's language use in Excerpts 57 (as a first-grader) and 58 (as a third-grader) below display that when Julie was a first-grader, she translanguageed into English when she did not know the equivalent words in Korean, but by third-grade she had acquired knowledge of the same words and only spoke in Korean. In Excerpt 57, Julie as a first-grader translanguageed into English for the words "story" and "remember" (turn 2) when she responded to my question (as her first-grade teacher in 2014). When I asked her how to say the words in Korean, she stated that she used the word "story" in English when she spoke in Korean, and that she did not know the corresponding word for "remember" in Korean. The example indicates that Julie translanguageed into English for communication purposes.

Excerpt 57. Julie's (first-grade) translanguageing for communication

1. T: 너네 윤이 자기 영어 이름을 어떻게 썼는지 기억해? [Do you remember when Yoon learns how to write her name in English?]
2. Julie: 나 그 story remember 해 요. [I remember the story.]

Julie's third-grade language use in Excerpt 58 (below) demonstrated that she had acquired the two words (story and remember) in Korean. Julie's answer to Ms. Joen's question included the Korean words (underlined) for "story" and "remember" (turn 2). However, despite evidence of her vocabulary gain, Julie later spoke the word "story" in English in her speech (turn 3).

Excerpt 58. Julie's (third-grade) demonstration of sociolinguistic competence through translanguageing

1. Ms. Jeon: 우리 지난주에 읽은 동화책 내용 누가 발표해 볼래? 줄리 해볼래?
[Who wants to tell the story of the book that we read in class last week? Julie, can you try?]
2. Julie: 어...저 그 책 내용 기억나는 거 같아요. [Umm... I think I remember the story of the book.
3. Julie: 근데 저 story 제대로 기억못할 수도 있어요. [But, I might not correctly remember the story.]

In the interview, Julie explained that she spoke the English word after saying it in Korean because she also knew the word in English. Julie stated, "나는 영어로 말한게 내가 그단어 영어로도 알아서요" [I think I spoke it English because I know the word in English as well]. Analysis of the above translanguageing example indicates that Julie employed translanguageing to demonstrate her sociolinguistic knowledge in English.

Comparing Toni's language use in Excerpts 59 (in first-grade) and 60 (in third-grade) also shows evidence of Toni's vocabulary gain in Korean. In Excerpt 59, Toni as a first-grader responded to my question by translanguageing the words "favorite part" (turn 2). When I asked Toni how to say the words in Korean, he stated that he knew how to say "like" but did not know

the word “favorite” in Korean. Similar to the previous example by Julie, Toni also translanguaged into English for communication purposes.

Excerpt 59. Toni’s (first-grade) translanguaging for communication

1. T: 너네 은혜 반 친구들이 이름이 담긴 병 만든거 기억해? [Do you all remember the part when the classmates created the name jar for Unhei?]
2. Toni: 그거 내 favorite part 에 요. [That was my favorite part.]

Analysis of Toni’s third-grade language use in Excerpt 60 (below) demonstrated that he had acquired the word (favorite) in Korean. Toni’s answer to Julie’s question included the Korean word (underlined) for “favorite” (turn 2). Yet, Toni later spoke the word “favorite” in English in his speech (turn 4).

Excerpt 60. Toni’s (third-grade) demonstration of sociolinguistic competence through translanguaging

1. Julie: 누가 이거 할래? [Who wants to do this?]
2. Toni: 나 할래. 이거 내가 제일 좋아하는 거야. [I will do it. That is my favorite game.]
3. Julie: 엄청 잘한다 [You are so good at this.]
4. Toni: 내가 말했지? 내 favorite 이라고! [I told you that it was my favorite!]

It seemed that Toni spoke the word “favorite” in English instinctively (turn 4) as he responded to Julie’s praise (turn 3). In the interview, Toni explained that he sometimes uses English because he has quicker lexical access to English. He stated “저는 어떨때는 영어가 더 빨리 생각나서 영어로 그냥 말해요” [I used English because sometime English words come to my mind more

quickly than Korean words]. Analysis of the above example showed that when Toni engaged in translanguaging, he demonstrated his sociolinguistic competence in English.

In Excerpt 61, Julie translanguaged into English for the words “shy” and “nervous” (turn 2) when she responded to my (as her first-grade teacher in 2014) question. When I asked her how to say the words in Korean, she described the characteristics of being shy and nervous by using English words (“face red”, “heart beat” and “worry”) and stated that she did not know the corresponding words in Korean. However, Julie appeared to demonstrate her metalinguistic awareness when she translanguaged to explain the definitions of the words (turn 4).

Excerpt 61. Julie’s (first-grade) translanguaging for communication

1. T: 처음 미국학교 갔을때 어땠어? [How did you feel when you went to the school for the first time?]
2. Julie: 저 학교 처음 갔을 때 많이 shy 하고 nervous 했어요. [When I went to the school for the first time, I was very shy and nervous.]
3. T: shy 랑 nervous 한거 어떻게 한국말로 할 수 있지? [How can you describe being shy and nervous in Korean?]
3. Julie: shy 는 face red 하는거고, nervous 는 heart beat 돼요 왜냐면 worry 많이 해서. Korean 으로는 잘 몰라요. [Being shy is when someone’s face becomes red, and if you feel nervous, your heart is beating because you worry a lot. I do not know them in Korean.]

Julie’s third-grade language use in Excerpt 62 (below) demonstrated that she had acquired the two words (shy and nervous) in Korean. Julie’s answer to Ms. Joen’s question included the Korean words (underlined) for “shy” and “nervous” (turn 2). However, despite evidence of her vocabulary gain, Julie later spoke the word “nervous” in English in her speech

(turn 4). Close analysis revealed that she used translanguaging to repeat the word in English after speaking it in Korean.

Excerpt 62. Julie's (third-grade) metalinguistic awareness through translanguaging

1. Julie: 에르반이 부끄러워서 귀가 빨개졌어요. 떨리고 겁이 났어요 실수할까봐

[Erevan's ears became red because he was shy. And he felt nervous and anxious.]

2. Julie: 왜냐면 수학문제 푸는데 실수할까봐 떨렸어요 nervous 했어요. [Erevan

was nervous nervous (repeated the word); he was afraid of making mistakes when he solved the mathematics problem.]

In the interview, Julie explained that she repeated the word in English to emphasize its meaning in her response. Julie stated, “저는 그 단어 *nervous* 영어로 또 말했어요 왜냐하면 Erevan 이 얼마나 떨렸는지 말하려고” [I said the word “nervous” again in English because I wanted to emphasize how much Erevan (the character in the book) was nervous.] Her translanguaging example here is similar to the concept of bilingual revoicing (Gort & Sembiente, 2015); it indicates that Julie exhibited her metalinguistic awareness when she purposefully switched the word to English to highlight its meaning.

Comparing Toni's language use in Excerpts 63 (in first-grade) and 64 (in third-grade) also shows evidence of Toni's vocabulary gain in Korean. In Excerpt 63, Toni as a first-grader didn't seem to understand the meaning of the Korean word “뜻 [meaning]” when I (his first-grade teacher) asked the class a question (turn 2). Yet, when I provided the example from the book that the class had read (turn 3), Toni appeared to understand the meaning of the idea even though he did not use the word in Korean. Rather, he provided the word in English when he answered my question (turn 4).

Excerpt 63. Toni's (first-grade) translanguaging for communication

1. T: 너네는 모두 너네 이름에 담긴 뜻을 알아? [Do you all know the meanings in your names?]
2. Toni: 뜻? 그게 뭐예요? [Meaning? What is that?]
3. T: 예를들어... 책에서 윤은 이름의 뜻이 지혜 shining wisdom 였잖아. 너네들은 뭔지 알고 있어? [For example, the meaning in Yoon's name was shining wisdom from the book. Do you all know about yours?]
4. Toni: 아 이름에 meaning. 나 엄마가 알려줬는데 I forgot. [Oh, the meaning in my name. My mom told me, but I forgot.]

On the other hand, Toni's third-grade responses in Excerpt 64 exhibited that he said the word “뜻” [meaning] in Korean (turn 2; Italicized) in responding to Ms. Joen's question (turn 2). When Ms. Joen asked the class whether they knew the Korean word “벼슬” (officialdom) (turn 1), Toni answered her question by using the word “meaning” in Korean. However, similar to what Julie did in the previous example, Toni also spoke the acquired Korean word (“meaning”) in English later (turn 4).

Excerpt 64. Toni's (third-grade) demonstration of metalinguistic awareness through translanguaging

1. Ms. Joen: 벼슬이라고 했는데 벼슬이 뭐지? [The Korean folktale says officialdom. Do you know what it is?]
2. Toni: 벼슬.. 그 뜻 그거 뭐지...아 그거 부자되고 상 받는거요. [Byeoseul...what is the meaning of it? Oh, it is.... to become rich and get prize.]
3. Ms. Joen: 그렇지. 높은 지위를 갖는거를 벼슬이라고 해. [Right. Byeoseul is getting high status/bureaucracy.]

4. Toni: 근데 벼슬 영어로 바꾸면 그 meaning 이 변해요? [But, does the meaning change if I translated the word in English?]

It appeared that Toni spoke the word “meaning” in English instinctively as he was thinking about the meaning of the English word (turn 4). During the interview, Toni explained, “저는 그 단어 영어로 바꾸면 뭐인지 생각했어요 그래서 영어 단어가 자동으로 나온 거 같아요” [I was thinking about how to say the word (officialdom) in English so I said the word in English automatically]. His response indicates that when he translanguaged, he utilized his metalinguistic awareness.

Different functions for oral translanguaging. A comparison of Toni and Julie’s first- and third-grade use of translanguaging in their speech revealed that the functions of their translanguaging appeared to be different. As shown in the previous excerpts, Toni and Julie’s translanguaging for the sociolinguistic function were more observed in first-grade (93% and 89%) than in third-grade (49% and 48% in third-grade). This was because Toni and Julie as first-graders utilized their English knowledge since they did not know the equivalent Korean words. In other words, they often borrowed the lexical items from English to extend their unknown vocabulary in Korean to deliver their meanings, which appeared to demonstrate their English sociolinguistic competence.

Although Toni and Julie as third-graders translanguaged into English for the lexical items, the findings indicate that they translanguaged not because they did not know the words in Korean but because they were flexibly utilizing the lexical items in both languages. Their third-grade translanguaging implies that they were sociolinguistic competent in both languages because they initially spoke the words in Korean and then in English. Analysis of the students’ use of translanguaging in third-grade further demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness as they

purposefully and intuitively did it (31% and 33% for Toni and Julie; see Chapter 5), but their use of translanguaging in first-grade rarely showed much evidence of metalinguistic awareness (5% and 8% for Toni and Julie).

Development of Korean honorifics. A comparison of Toni and Julie's oral language use between first- and third-grade showed that they used Korean honorifics (formal form of speaking) appropriately throughout their third-grade language use data when they talked to their teacher (Ms. Joen) and to me during the interview. It is important to note that using honorifics is required in Korean when speaking to older or unfamiliar people. Since young Korean children seldom use it with their parents in the home setting to express intimacy, school is the primary setting where young Korean children learn how to use it properly with the teacher.

When Toni and Julie were my students in first-grade, Julie was the student who did not use honorifics with me. Indeed, analysis of the students' oral language use in third-grade showed that Julie used honorifics appropriately when responding to Ms. Joen. Julie also appropriately used honorifics during the interviews with me.

Although Toni was more likely to use Korean honorifics to address me in his first-grade class, he did not always use them appropriately. There are different levels of Korean honorifics depending on the level of politeness. For instance, to make honorifics, Korean speakers not only have to add a suffix to the end of verbs but also switch the verbs to suppletive forms to connote being humble. In first-grade, Toni often correctly added suffixes to the end of verbs but rarely used the polite form of verbs. In addition, when Toni's mother picked him up after school, I had observed that Toni did not use honorifics with her. However, his third-grade speech displayed that he used honorifics appropriately and correctly with Ms. Joen in his third-grade classroom

and with me during the interviews. Whenever I observed Toni's conversation with his mother before/after the interviews, he appropriately used honorifics to address his mother.

Comparison of focal students' written language use between first- and third-grade.

Table 12 shows a comparison of Toni and Julie's written language use in first- and third-grade. The table displays how often Toni and Julie used Korean, English, and translanguaging when they engaged in writing in both grades.

Table 12

Comparison of Toni and Julie's Written Language Use Between First- and Third-Grade

		Korean only sentences	English only sentences	Word-level translanguaging ^a (English words in Korean sentences)	Word-level translanguaging ^b (Korean words in English sentences)	Frequency of TL at sentence- level ^c (Korean to English or vice versa)
1 st grade (Spring 2014)	Toni	45 (43%)	22 (21%)	38 (36%)	0	12 times
	Julie	51 (47%)	28 (26%)	29 (27%)	0	17 times
3 rd grade (Spring 2016)	Toni	276 (91%)	0	26 (9%)	0	0 times
	Julie	253 (88%)	0	38 (12%)	0	0 times

Note. ^aThe frequency of the students' English word-level translanguaging in Korean sentences.

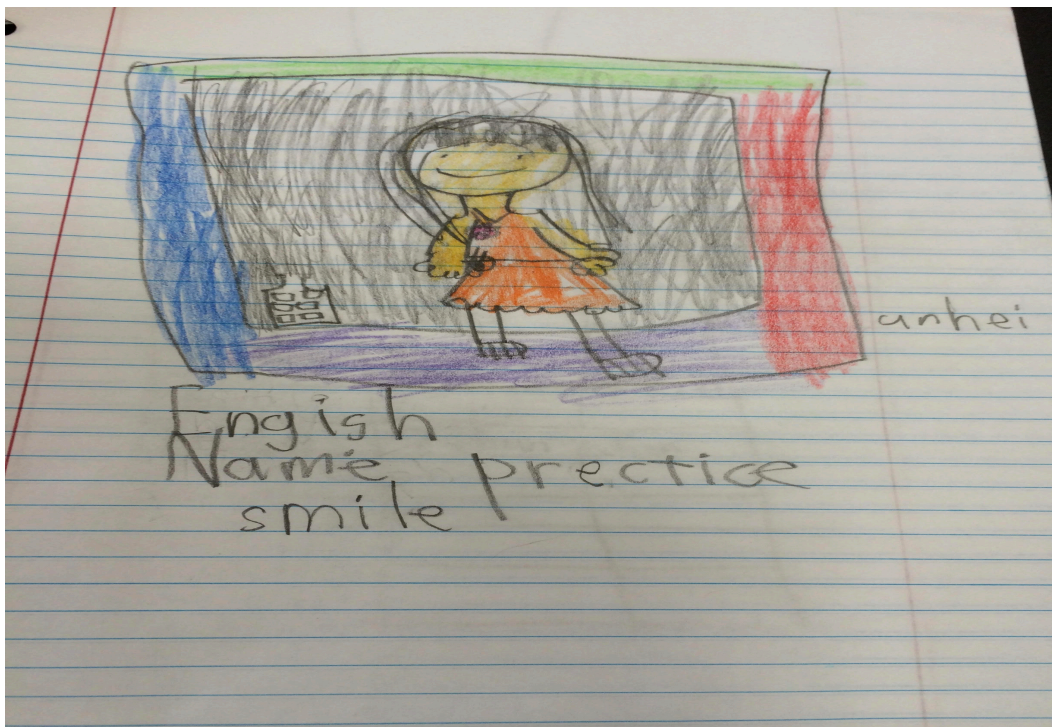
^bThe frequency of the students' Korean word-level translanguaging in English sentences. ^cThe frequency of the students' sentence-level translanguaging from Korean to English or vice versa.

As shown in Table 12, when Toni and Julie were in first-grade, they produced English-only sentences (21% and 26 %, respectively) and added English words while composing in Korean (36% and 27%, respectively); thus, more than half of their writing included English

words or sentences (57% and 53% in Toni's and Julies' writing samples). However, analysis of their third-grade language use revealed that they predominantly wrote in Korean (91% and 88%, respectively) and did not provide any sentences written entirely in English (see Chapter 5 for the details). In addition, the frequency of their word-level translanguaging (inserting English words into their Korean sentences) decreased when they became third-graders (from 36% to 9% for Toni; from 27% to 12% for Julie). Similar to the comparison found in the focal third-graders' oral language use, there was an increase of Korean and a decrease of English in their written language use.

Increased use of Korean when writing. Toni, who mainly composed in Korean as a third-grader, frequently used English in his first-grade writing samples. Excerpt 61 shows one of Toni's first-grade writing samples in which he drew and wrote about a favorite scene from the book *The Name Jar*.

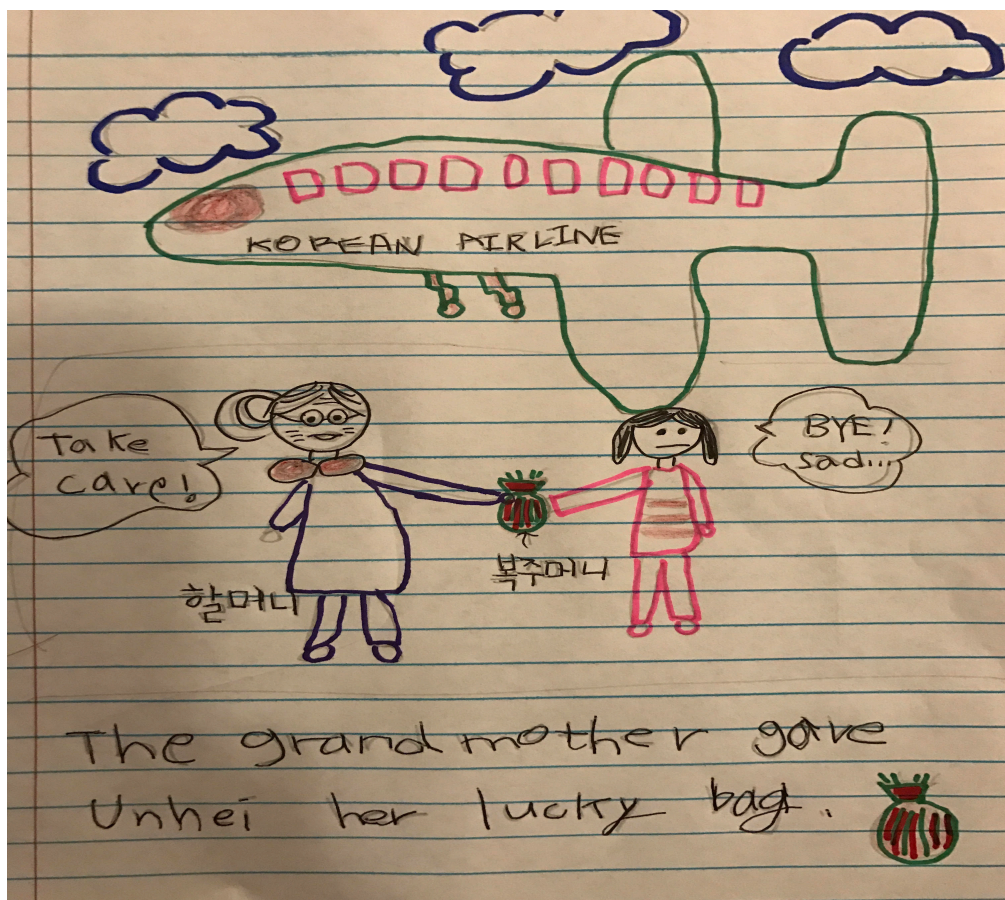
Excerpt 61. Toni's (first-grade) writing in English



As shown, although Toni did not provide complete sentences in his writing, he only used English when he wrote the phrase (“English name practice”) and words (“smile” and “Unhei” – the main character’s name) to explain what he drew. On the other hand, Toni did not write any complete sentences in English in any of his third-grade writing samples, with 91% of his writing in Korean. He only translanguage at the word level 9 percent of the time.

A similar pattern was observed in a comparison of Julie’s first- and third-grade writing samples. Excerpt 62 displayed Julie’s first-grade writing sample, which also illustrated her favorite scene from the same book *The Name Jar*.

Excerpt 62. Julie’s (first-grade) writing in English



As shown, Julie wrote a sentence in English to describe her drawing. Close analysis of her captions showed that she used English for the words “Korean airline,” “Take care,” “BYE!” and

“sad,” but wrote in Korean for the words “할머니” (grandmother) and “복주머니” (Korean traditional lucky bag). Julie’s use of translanguaging in Korean displayed her sociocultural knowledge. This function of translanguaging also was discovered in her third-grade caption writing. Julie, as a third-grader, provided English captions for places in the U.S. (e.g., Chicago trip, museum, shopping center, hotel, and inside the restaurant), but Korean captions for her family members (mom, dad, and younger sister), which demonstrated her use of translanguaging to show her sociocultural knowledge (see Excerpt 51 in Chapter 5).

Analysis of Julie’s third-grade writing samples showed that 88% of her sentences were completely written in Korean, with translanguaging into English at the word level occurring in 12 percent of her sentences (see Table 12). The findings in Toni and Julie’s examples showed that there had been increased use of Korean in their compositions. Regarding Toni and Julie’s increased Korean writing in third-grade, as discussed in the previous chapter, they both seemed to understand that they were supposed to use Korean for their formal writing at the Korean HL school.

Comparison of different types of word-level translanguaging. A comparison of Toni and Julie’s word-level translanguaging between their first- and third-grade writing samples revealed that there were different grammatical patterns in their translanguaged words. Table 13 shows when Toni and Julie translanguaged at the word level in both grades by borrowing linguistic lexical items from English.

Table 13

Focal Students’ Word-level Translanguaging (English Words in Korean Sentences)

Toni		Julie	
1 st grade	3 rd grade	1 st grade	3 rd grade

Table 13 (Continued)

Common nouns that exist in both languages (e.g., friend, school, food)	14 (37%)	0	12 (41%)	0
Proper nouns that exist in English only (e.g., People's names, names for places)	10 (26%)	23 (88%)	9 (31%)	31 (86%)
English loan words (e.g., banana, pizza)	7 (16%)	3 (12%)	4 (14%)	7 (14%)
Adjectives that exist in both languages (e.g., pretty, delicious)	3 (8%)	0	2 (8%)	0
Verbs that exist in both languages (e.g., invite, tease)	4 (8%)	0	2 (3%)	0
Total	38 (100%)	26 (100%)	29 (100%)	38 (100%)

As shown in Table 13, when Toni and Julie were in first-grade, they most frequently translanguage into English for common nouns that exist in both Korean and English. For example, Toni inserted the English words “swimming pool” and “slides” into his diary writing, even though there were equivalent Korean words, when he wrote, “나는 swimming pool 가고 slides 탔어요 [I went to swimming pool and rode slides].” Similarly, Julie inserted the English word “cartoon” into a Korean sentence when she wrote, “나는 동생이랑 오늘 cartoon 봤어요 [Today I watched a cartoon with my younger sister], even though there was an equivalent Korean word. Responding to my question about whether they knew the translanguage words in Korean during the interviews, Toni answered that he wrote the words “swimming pool” and

“slides” in English because he did not know the equivalent words in Korean. Julie stated that she knew the word for “cartoon” in Korean but wrote it in English because she did not know the correct spelling of it in Korean.

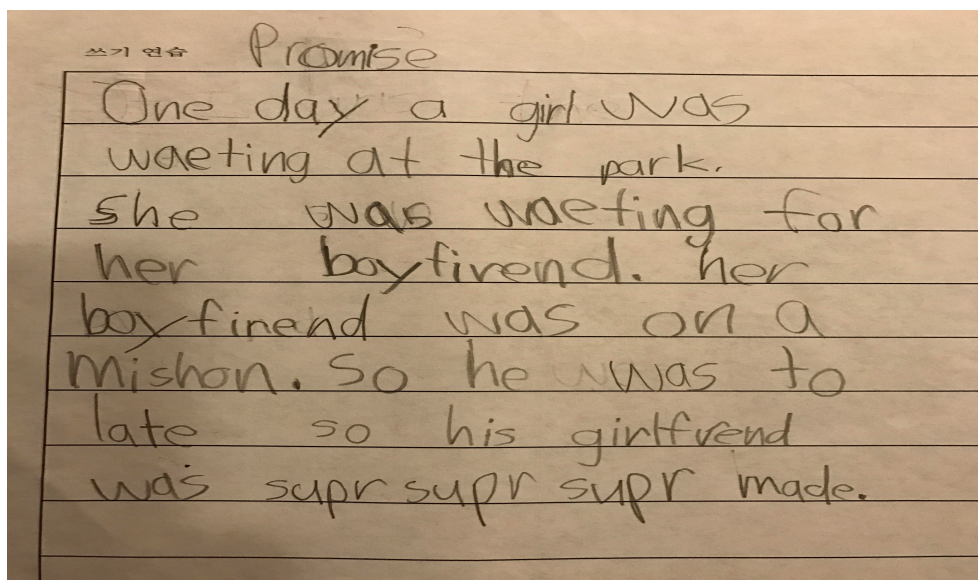
The students’ writing samples in first-grade showed their occasional translanguaging into English for adjectives and verbs. For example, Julie used translanguaging to write an adjective when she wrote “내 영어 이름이 pretty 해요” [My English name is pretty]. Toni translanguaged when he wrote a verb in English (e.g., “내 친구가 생일파티 invite 해서요” [My friend invited me for his birthday party]). In both cases, equivalent words were available in Korean. During the interviews, Toni stated that he did not know the Korean word for “invite.” Although Julie answered that she knew the Korean adjective for the word “pretty,” she admitted that she wrote it in English because she was unsure about the correct spelling of it in Korean.

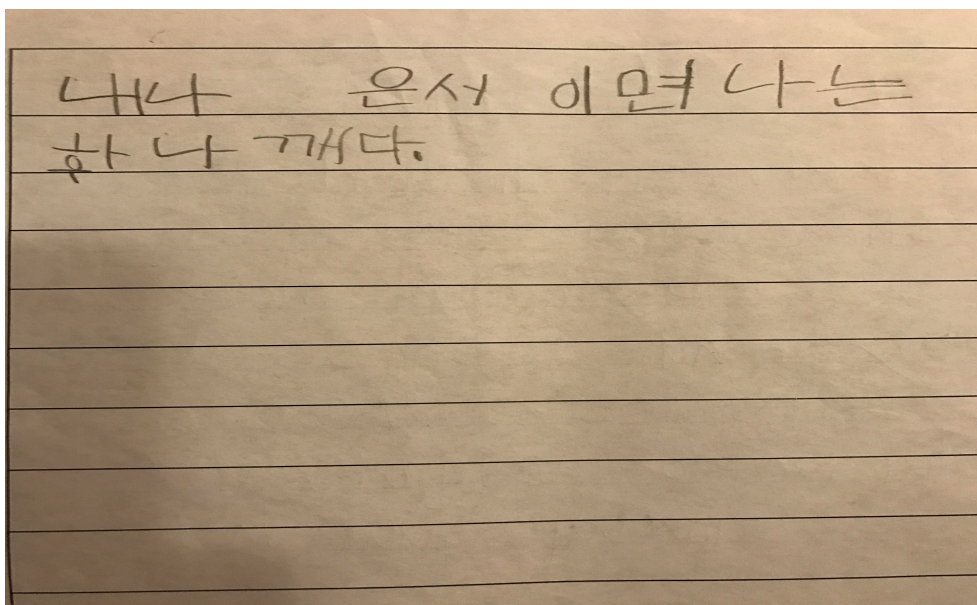
On the other hand, in their third-grade writing samples, they did not translanguage for words (common nouns, adjectives, and verbs) that exist in both languages. Analysis of their first-grade writing samples indicated that they appeared to borrow their linguistic resources from English to complete their writing because they did not know the equivalent words or the correct spellings in Korean. Interestingly, Toni and Julie’s translanguaging in third-grade occurred mainly when they wrote proper nouns in English in their diary entries (88% for Toni and 86% for Julie). For instance, Toni often mentioned his foreign friends’ names in his diary entries (e.g., 나는 Mike 와 축구를 했습니다 [I played soccer with Mike]), and Julie often stated the places where she went (e.g., 나는 오늘 엄마랑 TJ Max 에 갔습니다 [I went to TJ Max with my mom today]); thus, it seemed appropriate for them to write the proper nouns in English since they only exist in English.

In both grades, Toni and Julie sometimes wrote English loan words in English. However, their use of English loan words decreased when they were in third-grade (from 7 times to 2 times in Toni's writing and from 4 times to 2 times in Julie's writing). Close analysis of their use of English loan words in their third-grade writing showed that they often transcribed the words using Korean letters. For example, in their diary entries, Toni wrote “샌드위치” [sandwich] and Julie wrote “스케이트” [skate] using Korean characters based on how the words are pronounced in English. Because they did not write these words in English, I did not count them as word-level translanguaging in Table 13.

Writing in English and translanguaging into Korean. When Toni and Julie were in first-grade, they were asked to retell a story from a Korean textbook that illustrates the importance of keeping a promise. For this particular writing task, they were allowed to use both languages to provide their written responses. Although they both read the story in Korean, they primarily wrote the retelling in English, but ended it in Korean. Excerpt 63 displays Toni's written retelling of the Korean story.

Excerpt 63. Toni's (first-grade) writing sample in both English and Korean





[Translation for Korean writing: If I were Eunseo, I would be mad at him.]

Close analysis of Toni's writing indicated that he successfully retold the story in English although he often made spelling mistakes. Yet, in his Korean writing, he provided only one sentence. Toni's Korean writing did not recount the story; rather, he stated how he would feel if he were the main character in the book. In the interview, Toni stated, "I wrote about the story in English because I was allowed to do so, then I wrote something in Korean because I thought that Eunseo (the character from the story) would mad." His writing in the two languages indicates that he did not seem to be confused by his two languages, but might have had separate purposes for writing in each language.

Excerpt 64 below displays Julie's written retelling of the Korean story. Analysis of Julie's retelling indicated that she effectively retold it in English. She used Korean to write a translated summary of the story. She seemed to differentiate the purposes and places for writing in English and Korean. In the interview, Julie stated, "I wrote it in English first because it is more easy to write [in English], and then I wrote in Korean. Maybe I copied some [of my

English writing] in Korean.” Her response indicates that she used a translating strategy when she composed in Korean, which indicates that she did not seem to be confused by her languages.

Excerpt 64. Julie’s (first-grade) writing sample in both English and Korean

Promise

A girl went to the park because a boy was coming to the to play with the girl. The boy came 30 minutes late so the girl was mad. The next day she asked him to come on 3 o'clock and he

came in 30 minutes late again so she was mad again.

어느날은 서가. 재민이를 공원에. 오라고 했어요. 구런데 재민이가 30분 늦었습니다. 은 서가 화났습니다. 나

[Translation for Korean writing: One day, Eunseo asked Jaemin to come to the park. But Jaemin was 30 minutes late. Eunseo was mad at him.]

Analysis of their third-grade writing samples, shown in Chapter 5, showed that Toni and Julie delivered their thoughts and ideas by consistently writing in Korean when they engaged in in-class writing and kept their diary entries. The focal third-graders' oral and written language use indicates that they were more likely to use Korean in the Korean HL school than they did in first-grade. Interviews with the students and their mothers provided several reasons for why they spoke and wrote in their HL in third-grade.

Socio-cultural Influences on the Focal Students' HL Development

Shift in home language use according to the parents' influence. When Toni and Julie were first-graders, they said that they were more likely to use English than Korean at home even when interacting with their parents. Although their parents asked them questions in Korean, they said they mostly replied in English. According to them, when they were first-graders, their primary language at home was English.

Yet, it was interesting to find that their language use at home in third-grade had shifted. Toni, as a third-grader, stated that he was required to speak in Korean at home upon his father's request, explaining:

저는 엄마 아빠랑 한국말 해야돼요. 저 아빠는 제가 영어로 대답하면 화내요.

아빠는 제가 맨날 한국말로 말하길 바래요. 근데 아빠 집에 없을 때는 영어해도돼요

엄마한테. 근데 아빠있으면 저는 한국말 해야돼요. [I have to speak in Korean with my parents. My dad gets mad when I reply back in English during our conversation. He really wants me to use Korean all the time at home. When my dad is not at home, I can use English to my mom. But when there is my dad, I always have to use Korean].

Toni's mother provided a more concrete answer to explain why her husband became strict about Toni's language use. His mother stated that the parents were generous about Toni's English use at home when he was in first-grade. However, when they observed that Toni exclusively used English with them, the father forced Toni to use Korean:

When Toni was in the first-grade, we did not push him to use Korean at home because we believed that it was a transition time for him from using more Korean to more English. But, after a certain period of time, we witnessed that Toni used English predominantly even with us at home. Thus, my husband strictly told Toni that he had to speak in Korean whenever he says something to us.

Similarly, Julie stated that it was acceptable for her to use English at home when she was a first-grader, but by the time she became a third-grader, her parents made a Korean-speaking only rule at home. She shared:

한국말이 집에서 사용하는 말이에요. 원래 영어해도 괜찮았어요 저 어릴때. 그리고 저 영어 많이 했어요. 근데 이제는 엄마아빠가 저 한국말만 하라고 맨날 해요. 우리 한국말만 하기 를 있어요. [Korean is the language that my family has to use at home. It was okay to use English when I was young, and I used English all the time. But, nowadays my parents keep asking me to speak only Korean at home. We have Korean-speaking only rule (at home)].

Julie's mother shared that Julie used to be outgoing and talkative when she interacted with others in Korean, which had led her to learn Korean quickly. Yet, when Julie was in kindergarten, she had difficulty interacting with peers in her American school because of her limited English proficiency. Therefore, her parents considered English learning to be an important issue for Julie. Her mother explained,

When we saw that Julie often felt depressed, we thought that teaching English should be the first step for Julie so that she would feel confident in her American school. That's why there had been a time when we provided educational resources more in English than in Korean. For instance, we provided English songs, videos, and books at home.

As Julie became proficient in English, her parents observed that she tended to speak only in English and rarely used Korean. Her mother explained that this was when they initiated a Korean only rule at home: "We were concerned about her not using Korean, so we decided to make a Korean-language-only rule at home."

Parents' instructional focus on Korean literacy learning. Interviews with the focal third-graders' mothers and their journals documented their practices at home for improving their children's reading and writing in Korean. Both mothers stated that they already regarded their children as English dominant and thought they would become even more English dominant in the future. They indicated that they were concerned about their children's literacy development in Korean. Thus, both Toni and Julie's parents had engaged in their children's literacy learning on a regular basis by providing instruction in Korean at home.

Korean book reading time. Both the mothers' interview results and journal reports showed that they spent Korean book reading time with their children on a regular basis at home. Julie's mother pointed out that in first grade, Julie was a slow reader when she read Korean books, compared to when she read English books. Thus, she held Korean book reading time with Julie every night when she was in second-grade. She asked Julie to read a Korean picture book aloud, and she helped her with difficult words or phrases. The mother's journal reports displayed that when Julie became a third-grader, she began to have independent Korean book reading time. According to the mother, although Julie sometimes asked her mother for help

when she found unknown Korean words, she was able to become an independent reader by the time that she was a third-grader.

In Toni's case, Toni's mother stated that Toni was an avid reader when it came to the fantasy fiction genre. According to his mother, Toni began to read the Harry Potter series in English since second-grade. When Toni's grandparents visited his home during the break between second- and third-grade, they brought the Harry Potter series in Korean. Toni began to read the Korean version of the books independently in third-grade. Toni often told his mother that there were many unknown Korean words, which she usually explained by providing synonyms or example sentences. The mother believed that this practice (his independent reading with her assistance) had helped Toni to improve his fluency in Korean as well as to develop his Korean vocabulary.

Both mothers acknowledged that they had focused on their children's Korean reading comprehension beyond their decoding in Korean. Toni's mother stated that although Toni read Korean books relatively fast, sometimes he did not understand the stories of the books that he read. The mother reported that she usually checked Toni's reading comprehension by asking Toni to retell the stories when he finished reading Korean books, explaining:

Whenever Toni told me he was done reading Korean books, I asked him to retell the story of the books, but he often said that I don't know or I don't remember; thus, I usually provided guided questions about the character or scene so that he could tell me about the story.

Similarly, Julie's mother mentioned that she often asked Julie to retell the story of the Korean books. According to her mother, Julie sometimes provided the retelling in English, but her English retelling indicated that she comprehended the stories. She explained:

Julie sometimes told me her retelling story in English although she read the book in Korean. But, I was able to see that she understood the story. Whenever she answered in English, I encouraged her to retell the story in Korean again.

Korean dictation tests for vocabulary learning. In terms of the students' improved Korean vocabulary, both mothers explained that they held Korean dictation practice with their children three to five times per week. Because Korean is a shallow orthography system, which has one-to-one phoneme (sound) and grapheme (spelling) correspondence, it is important for a Korean child to learn how each phoneme represents a particular grapheme. Both Toni and Julie's mothers stated that they prepared 10 -15 Korean words, phrases, sentences from the Korean books that their children read, and then the mothers read them aloud for their children to write down. Although the Korean language school provided a Korean dictation test every week, the mothers spent additional time on Korean vocabulary by having their children take Korean dictation tests at home. Both mothers thought that the Korean dictation tests helped their children to develop their Korean vocabulary knowledge. Toni's mother additionally stated that she always made sure that Toni understood the meaning of the words or phrases that were on the dictation tests. For instance, the mother often provided example sentences that included the target vocabulary or phrases after Toni did the Korean dictation tests.

The mothers' interview and journal responses indicated that they had spent more time on their children's Korean literacy learning than on their Korean oral proficiency. According to Toni's mother, there was a relatively small amount of time for Toni to develop his Korean literacy skills, explaining:

Toni had more opportunity to learn and develop his speaking and listening in Korean by interacting with us (her husband and her), his Korean relatives, his Korean friends etc.,

but he learned Korean reading and writing at the Korean language school only. Thus, we (her husband and her) have tried to provide more opportunity and resources for Toni to improve his literacy skills in Korean at home.

Similarly, Julie's mother pointed out that she and her husband wanted Julie to be competent in Korean reading and writing beyond her communicative skills in Korean. The mother also conjectured that because Julie would develop English at a faster rate in her future, she believed that it was important for them (her husband and her) to emphasize educating Julie in Korean by engaging in Korean literacy practices at home:

We know that Julie will develop English at a faster rate.... Although we focus on the Korean language, she is going to be dominant in the English language as she lives here (U.S.) and interacts with English-speaking people. Thus, we tried to spend time to teach her Korean and provide educational resources in Korean as much as possible at home. We really want Julie to be competent not only in her communicative skills but also her literacy skills in Korean.

Relatives' influence. The focal mothers' journals showed that relatives also influenced their children's Korean language learning. In Toni's case, his Korean grandparents visited Toni's house in the U.S. and stayed there for a month during part of the data collection. Because Toni's grandparents did not speak any English, the language that Toni had to use with them was Korean, which eventually resulted in Toni practicing more Korean.

One of the mother's journal entries indicated that Toni had learned how to play a Korean traditional game "Yutnori" from his grandmother. The mother believed that learning a traditional game from the grandmother had not only provided a good opportunity for Toni to learn about the cultural aspect of Korea, but also had helped Toni to improve his listening and

speaking in Korean because Korean is the only language that Toni could use with his grandmother. The mother observed that Toni always paid attention to his grandmother in order to understand what she said, explaining:

When we explained something to Toni in Korean but he did not get it, he often asked us to say it again in English, since he knew that we could speak in English. But during conversation with his grandparents, Toni tried to understand Korean without asking because he understood that his grandparents spoke in Korean only. Thus, we believe that the grandparents' visit so far, as well as the conversation with them over the phone or Skype, had played a significant role in Toni's Korean language learning and use.

Toni's mother further stated that having regular conversation with his grandparents during phone calls or Skype had helped Toni to acquire Korean words and expressions. She stated:

When Toni heard Korean words or expressions that he did not know from his grandparents over the phone or via Skype, he often asked me the equivalent words in English or the meaning of those unfamiliar expressions. I believe that because of this practice, Toni was able to acquire many Korean words and expressions that are not commonly used in the U.S. context.

The mother's journal entries also showed how Toni worked as a language broker for his grandparents. When Toni's family went out for dinner with his grandparents, the mother observed that Toni explained the food menu to his grandparents in Korean since he was aware that they did not read the English menu. After having a meal in a Chinese restaurant, the family was given fortune cookies. Toni looked at his grandparents' fortunes and translated what they

said in English into Korean for them. Toni's mother stated that Toni appeared to understand that he should take responsibility for translating English into Korean for his grandparents:

Toni has seen that we usually explained or translated what was happening in English into Korean for his grandmother when he was young. Toni recently tried to explain the context or situation that occurred in English by using Korean with his grandparents.

From my perspective, Toni seemed to understand that he was the one who can deliver the information that was given in English into Korean as a fluent English speaker and a proficient Korean speaker.

Similarly, the journal entries by Julie's mother also showed the influence of Korean relatives on Julie's language use and learning. During the data collection of this study, Julie's aunt, who lived in Korea and barely spoke English, visited Julie's house. Julie's mother observed that Julie spoke Korean exclusively when she talked to her aunt. The mother once recorded Julie's language use when the family played the board game "monopoly." Julie, who was familiar with the game's instructions, tried to explain to her aunt how to play it using Korean, which was different from her normal language use with her parents. Julie's mother believed that the presence of Julie's aunt provided a good opportunity for Julie to be immersed in Korean as she tried to use Korean all the time with her aunt who only spoke Korean:

I noticed that when Julie explained the instructions to her aunt, her speech was a little bit clumsy and awkward since she explained everything only in Korean. I know that she could have explained more fluently if she used English, but I saw that she stayed in Korean because Julie knew that her aunt would not understand if she used English. Also, since her aunt knew Julie's language use and proficiency as a Korean-American, her aunt didn't seem to be concerned about or criticize Julie's somewhat limited Korean

expressions or awkward pronunciations. I think this led Julie to freely use her Korean without hesitation or reluctance.

Both Toni and Julie's language use in the examples above illustrates that they considered their different interlocutors' language preferences and proficiencies.

Media influence. Korean media also seemed to play an important role in Toni and Julie's Korean language learning. The journal entries kept by Toni's mother indicated that Toni usually watched one of his favorite Korean television programs, "Running Man," on Sunday evenings with his father. In this program, there were many Korean entertainers, and they were engaged in diverse activities that included funny episodes. According to the mother's journal, Toni knew the entertainers' names, the nicknames that they used in the program, and each of their hilarious characteristics. But, because many of the conversations among the entertainers were not always straightforward (e.g., exaggerated expressions to make jokes, humorous language using jargon), it was difficult for Toni to understand the conversation completely. His mother observed that Toni sometimes asked his father about words or expressions that the characters used in certain situations. The mother believed that, although Toni did not know the meanings of every single word, he mostly appeared to grasp the intended messages in certain situations because he knew the overall context and circumstances. Toni's mother stated:

Although Toni could not get all the dialogues among the entertainers, he seemed to understand what was going on in certain situations. I think Toni's incomplete Korean communicative skills did not hinder him from understanding or enjoying watching those programs; rather, the exposure to the Korean programs accelerated Toni's Korean learning so that he could enjoy watching them.

The journal entries by Julie's mother also showed how Korean media positively influenced her child's Korean learning. According to the mother's journal, Julie watched a Korean program in which many famous Korean singers appeared in a competition to select a top singer. The mother recorded that Julie was able to repeat the Korean songs as she listened to them. During the mother's interview, it was revealed that Julie knew many Korean singers and memorized their songs by listening to them repeatedly. The mother shared that Julie occasionally asked her mother to print out the lyrics of her favorite Korean songs so that she could sing them by looking at the lyrics, which eventually led her to memorize the lyrics, although sometimes she did not know all the meanings of the phrases. The mother believed that listening to Korean songs and reading the Korean lyrics had assisted Julie to gain Korean vocabulary and to improve her Korean pronunciation:

I have seen Julie singing Korean songs many times at home. I think that singing Korean songs helped Julie to learn Korean easily since it provided Julie a good opportunity to learn about Korean vocabulary in context and to acquire more native-like pronunciation.

Developed courtesy manners appropriate for their heritage culture. During the data collection of this study, Toni and Julie's behavioral performances were observed, which demonstrated their understanding of Korean courtesy and manners. Comparison of Toni and Julie's non-verbal behaviors between first- and third-grade showed that they developed Korean courtesy manners when speaking Korean. Toni and Julie were able to use required body gestures when greeting (e.g., bowing) appropriately when they were in third-grade. These findings indicate that they became competent Korean speakers sociolinguistically and socioculturally

Bowing when greeting. When Koreans greet older people, they not only use honorifics, but also a specified body gesture, or bowing. Bowing is the act of lowering the torso and head as

a social gesture towards older people. Since I was not the third-graders' teacher at the Korean HL school during the data collection, the students did not see me regularly. However, I met Toni and Julie occasionally in the hallway in the school building during the semester. Whenever the students greeted me, they bowed to me while using honorifics (the formal form of "hi"). Their actions indicated that they had learned how to bow and use honorifics when addressing an adult.

During the interview with Toni's mother, she revealed that she and her husband had taught Toni how to greet his grandmother politely by bowing. The mother stated that since Toni regularly saw his grandmother, he often practiced bowing when greeting, which led him to use the body gesture when he met Korean adults.

In Julie's case, her mother stated that when Julie visited Korea once a year, she and her husband showed Julie how others bowed when they greeted adults, and taught her the proper way to greet older people. After that, the mother observed that Julie began to bow when she greeted older Korean people.

Appropriate use of honorifics. According to Toni's mother, when he became a second grader, his father constantly asked him to use honorifics to address his parents. The mother also said that Toni had more opportunity to practice Korean honorifics when his family visited Korea once a year.

Julie's mother also explained when and how Julie learned to use Korean honorifics. According to Julie's mother, her parents did not ask her to use honorifics when she talked to them. But, when Julie became a second grader, there was an occasion when her mother saw Julie not using honorifics when she met a Korean adult neighbor. Since then, the mother had tried to teach Julie how to use honorifics to other Koreans adults in a proper manner.

Summary

This chapter showed two third-grade Korean emergent bilinguals' language use over time by examining different patterns in their third-grade oral and written language use (Spring 2016), compared to their first-grade oral and written language use (Spring 2014). The comparison of findings indicated that there was an increase in Korean and a decrease in English in the students' oral and written language use over the two years. It was further revealed that the patterns and functions of their translanguaging when speaking and writing in the two grades were different. As first-graders, Toni and Julie frequently orally translanguaged into English because they did not know the corresponding words in Korean. However, in third-grade, they indicated that they had learned most of the Korean words that they had not known in first-grade.

Their translanguaging in third-grade demonstrated their sociolinguistic competence and metalinguistic awareness. The majority of Toni and Julie's translanguaging functioned as sociolinguistic competence in both grades (93% and 89% for Toni and Julie in first-grade; 49% and 48% in third-grade). Their uses of translanguaging for sociolinguistic functions were more observed in first-grade than in third-grade as they utilized their sociolinguistic knowledge from English. Although their use of translanguaging met a sociolinguistic function in both first and third-grade, it was more sophisticated in third-grade. On the other hand, their use of translanguaging for metalinguistic awareness was more frequent in third-grade (31% and 33% for Toni and Julie) compared to their metalinguistic awareness in first-grade (5% and 8%).

Regarding their written translanguaging, when Toni and Julie were in first-grade, they most frequently translanguaged into English for common nouns even though there were equivalent words in Korean. On the other hand, their translanguaging in third-grade mainly occurred when they wrote proper nouns that were in English. The comparison between Toni and Julie's language use between first- and third-grade showed that they were able to improve their

oral communication and writing skills in Korean. They did not appear to experience HL shift or loss between first and third-grade. The focal third-graders' Korean did not appear to diminish despite their minimum exposure to Korean and its reduced status in the U.S. as well as their rapid increase in English usage. Instead, they had developed a certain degree of oral proficiency and writing skills in their HL.

It appeared that the Korean teacher's (Ms. Joen) expectation that they use Korean in third-grade had influenced their increased use of Korean both in speaking and writing in the third-grade classroom. In addition, the parents' Korean-language-only rule at home appeared to play a pivotal role in the focal third-graders' longitudinal language use between first- and third-grade. It was discovered that the parents focused on their children's literacy learning in Korean at home by providing Korean book reading time and Korean dictation tests, which appeared to assist their children to improve Korean literacy skills. Frequent communication with Korean relatives and the exposure to Korean media (television programs and songs) also appeared to influence their increased Korean language use over time. Overall, the findings showed that the focal third-graders did not seem to experience HL shift or loss; rather, they became competent Korean speakers sociolinguistically and socioculturally as they developed Korean courtesy manners in their heritage culture, such as appropriate use of formal Korean (i.e., honorifics) and required body gestures (e.g., bowing).

Chapter 7

Summary, Discussions, and Implications

Summary

This study employed qualitative methods to investigate how eight first- and third-grade Korean emergent bilingual students used Korean and English in their oral speech and writing over 14 weeks at a Korean HL School in the U.S. The participating students attended all-English schools during the week, were exposed to Korean at home, and attended a Korean HL School on Saturdays. I analyzed their oral and written language output in terms of their self-reported language proficiency, language preferences, and immigrant status. In addition, I used qualitative discourse analysis to document the functions of their translanguaging. I constructed mini-case studies, based on interviews with the first-graders' mothers and two of the third-graders' mothers, along with the mothers' home language diaries, to examine how the attitudes and actions of the parents related to their children's language use.

As a longitudinal study, I compared the oral and written language performance of two of the third graders (Spring 2016) to their oral and written language performance in first grade (Spring 2014). The pilot study (Spring 2014) showed that when the third-graders were first-graders, they predominantly used English during classroom interactions in the HL classroom. I compared their language use in the two grades to understand whether the third graders had undergone any HL loss or shift.

Discussion of the Findings

This chapter discusses the major findings by addressing the research questions posed at the beginning of this study. In the discussion below, I have combined Research Question 1 (What characterized the Korean bilingual first-graders' oral and written use of Korean and

English at a Korean HL School?) and Research Question 3 (What characterized the Korean bilingual third-graders' oral and written use of Korean and English at a Korean HL School?). I also have combined Research Question 2 (What were the family influences on the Korean bilingual first-graders' language use?) and Research Question 5 (What were the family influences on the Korean bilingual focal third-graders' language use?). Then I discuss Research Question 4: How did the Korean bilingual third-graders' oral and written language use compare to their earlier use as first-graders?

First- and Third-Grade Bilingual Korean Students' Oral and Written Language Use

The three first-grade English proficient students' (Joon, Yuri, and Rena) oral language use showed that they used more English (34%, 29%, 31%, respectively) than Korean (15%, 21%, 21%) when speaking and more Korean (76%, 74%, 58%) than English (2%, 5%, 11%) when writing. The students often engaged in translanguaging when they spoke (51%, 50%, 48%) and wrote (22%, 21%, 31%). Meanwhile, Nari (the first-grade Korean proficient student) predominantly used Korean when she spoke (93%) and wrote (99.5%) and did not use much translanguaging (5% in speaking and 0.5% in writing).

In terms of the third-grade students, the three English proficient students' (Toni, Julie, and Suji) language use showed that they spoke more Korean (51%, 49%, 50%, respectively) than English (9%, 8%, 9%). The third-graders' writing also showed that they composed mostly in Korean (91%, 88%, 85%). The third-graders still engaged in translanguaging (40%, 43%, 42%, respectively) when they spoke. However, unlike the first-grade English proficient students, the third-graders did not engage in sentence-level translanguaging when writing (except for three English sentences by Suji). Meanwhile, Mina, the third-grade Korean proficient student, used Korean 90% of the time when speaking and 93% of the time when writing. She rarely used

English (4%) or translanguaging (6%) when speaking. Seven percent of her written translanguaging was discovered at the word level.

Although the English proficient students in both grades reported during the interviews that English was the more comfortable language for them, close analysis of their language use both in speaking and writing displayed that the third-graders engaged in less translanguaging practices than the first-graders did. The older grade students seemed to be more cognizant of their language use, and they appeared to meet their teacher's (Ms. Joen) expectation by using Korean in the Korean language classroom. There also were different patterns in translanguaging between the two grades of students' oral and written languages. For examples, the translanguaging use by students in both grades was less observed in their writing than their spoken language. Both the first- and third-grade students stated during the interviews that they understood that writing is a more formal activity than speaking. Although the first-grade English proficient students often engaged in translanguaging when they spoke, they stated during the interview that they had to write in Korean as much as possible when writing since writing is a more formal activity.

Both the first- and third-grade bilingual students' language use revealed that the English proficient students (Joon, Yuri, Rena as first-graders & Toni, Julie, Suji as third-graders) engaged in translanguaging practices when they engaged in oral communication and compositions. Four different functions (sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural knowledge) were discovered in both grades of students' oral and written language use.

Functions of oral translanguaging by first- and third-grade English proficient students. The majority of the first- and third-grade English proficient students' oral

translanguaging functioned as sociolinguistic competence (49%, 48%, 57% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, and 63%, 61%, 60% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figures 1 & 3 in Appendix A). They demonstrated sociolinguistic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) when they flexibly chose the lexical items from their two languages, had quicker lexical access to a particular language, and varied their language use according to the interlocutors. The first-grade English proficient students' use of oral translanguaging further demonstrated the sociolinguistic function when they borrowed lexical items for unknown equivalent words, and expressed their bilingual identities. For instance, both the first-graders and third-graders translanguaged by moving across their languages when considering their interlocutors. In Excerpts 8 and 36, both Yuri, a first-grader, and Julie, a third-grader, used Korean with their Korean language teachers, but English with their English proficient peers. Both students conformed to a principle of *code alignment* (Sayer, 2011). According to Sayer, bilingual speakers tend to follow the language that the more powerfully positioned speaker uses. Their translanguaging into Korean to talk to their Korean language teachers indicated that they considered their interlocutors' language use, and that their language choice was influenced by the teachers who had power in the classroom setting.

These findings corroborate Jørgensen and Holmen's (1997) argument that people who speak two languages "employ their full linguistic competence in two (or more) different languages at any given time adjusted to the needs and the possibilities of the conversation, including the linguistic skills of the interlocutors" (p. 13). In the same sense, Jonsson (2013) also discovered that young bilingual students' translanguaging practices naturally occurred depending on their interlocutors' language use. The English proficient students' language use demonstrated that English and Korean were part of their language repertoires, which they could freely employ.

The students' oral translanguaging sometimes demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness (32%, 36%, 27% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, and 31%, 33%, 32% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figures 1 & 3 in Appendix A). Both the first- and third-grade English proficient students' translanguaging demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness when they created new meanings of words, elaborated on their understanding of concepts, and controlled their language use. For example, two first-graders (Yuri & Joon) and a third-grader (Julie) played with humor by telling jokes through translanguaging, which suggests that they regulated their two languages as metalinguistically cognizant bilinguals. Previously, Jonsson (2013) showed that adolescent Spanish bilingual students purposefully translanguaged when they made jokes so that they could emphasize their ideas and further express their feelings. Similar to the older students in Jonsson's study, the younger students in this study showed that they were also able to convey meanings, deliver messages, and express themselves extensively when they employed translanguaging. The metalinguistic functions of translanguaging were further displayed in the third-graders' speech when they demonstrated their comparative linguistic knowledge of Korean and English and identified the language that the audience(s) used.

The findings further revealed that the English proficient students engaged in oral translanguaging when they used their metacognitive insight through inner speech. The first-grade English proficient students' uses of translanguaging for metacognitive insight were occasionally observed (10%, 7%, 10% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, respectively), but only one example for this function was found in a third-graders' (Toni's) speech (see Figures 1 & 3 in Appendix A) because I could not capture all the data on the third-graders' inner speech from the audio-recordings of the third-grade classroom. Both first- (Yuri) and third-graders (Toni) were involved in private speech while engaging in a cognitive task (see Excerpts 13-15), and their

self-directed dialogues indicated that they engaged in the process of internalization (Vygotsky, 1978) by using English. This example of translanguaging behavior is similar to a finding described by Martinez-Roldan (2015). One of the Spanish-English bilingual students in her study used Spanish when reading and discussing a book with the teacher, but used English when talking and making comments to himself. The student's translanguaging practice for self-directed dialogue was similar to what Yuri and Toni did in the present study. As Vygotsky (1978) argued in his internalization theory, Yuri and Toni appeared to be moving from interpersonal dialogues in Korean with their Korean language teachers to intrapersonal speech by using English.

The findings revealed that the first- and third-grade English proficient students' oral translanguaging also functioned as their sociocultural understanding when they used culturally familiar or relevant words (e.g., family members, traditional Korean games/plays). Yet, their use of translanguaging for this function was rarely observed (9%, 9%, 6% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, and 5%, 6%, 8% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figures 1 & 3 in Appendix A). When the students' translanguaging occurred as a function of their sociocultural knowledge, the use of Korean added meanings to their English speech. In Gort (2008) and Min's (2005) studies, young children who were learning two languages often added lexical items from a more proficient language when they spoke in their less proficient language, whereas, when they spoke in their proficient language, their use of translanguaging was rarely observed because they were able to stay in that language. However, the English proficient students in this study used language repertoires from Korean (which was regarded as their less proficient language) when they spoke in English in order to deliver meanings that were culturally unique and distinctive. This is a unique finding because it implies that the emergent bilinguals in this study were able to utilize

their vocabulary knowledge regardless of the level of their Korean proficiency because they were socioculturally competent in their HL. Overall, the English proficient students' oral translanguaging indicates their bilingualism since the findings showed that the emergent bilingual students' translanguaging leveraged their communication and language learning.

Differences in functions between the English proficient first- and third graders's oral translanguaging. Although both the English proficient first- and third-graders' translanguaging functioned for the same four categories, close analysis revealed that there were differences between the first- and third-grader's oral language use (see Figure 5 in Appendix B). In terms of the sociolinguistic function of the students' translanguaging, both the first- and third-graders had quicker lexical access to a particular language (mostly English). Both grades demonstrated that they knew the translanguaged words in the other language. However, the third-graders used the translanguaged words in their subsequent utterances, whereas, the first graders did not. In other words, the third-graders seemed to have quicker lexical access to English, and flexibly utilized their dual lexicon from their two languages more than the first-graders. In addition, the first-grade English proficient students often borrowed lexical items from English for unknown Korean equivalent words, whereas, there was no finding of lexical item borrowing in the third-graders' language use because they knew the words in Korean. Although students in both grades varied their language use according to the interlocutors, close analysis revealed that the first-graders translanguaged following their interlocutors' lead, while the third-graders initiated translanguaging by considering their interlocutors' language preference. The above findings indicate that the third-graders' translanguaging for the sociolinguistic function seemed to be more sophisticated than that of the first-graders.

Analysis of the English proficient students' translanguaging for metalinguistic awareness revealed that both the first- and third-graders translanguaged in order to make jokes by regulating their language choices (see Figure 5 in Appendix B). In addition, one first-grader applied his prior knowledge to create a new meaning of a word. All the third-graders demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness when they compared the differences between the Korean and English languages by applying their prior knowledge about speaking and writing in the two languages. In addition, one third-grader displayed her metalinguistic awareness when she identified the audience's (the character in the book) language use and then translanguaged into English to talk to the audience because she understood that English is the worldwide language.

The English proficient students in both grades also utilized their metalinguistic awareness through translanguaging. The first-grade student utilized her metalinguistic awareness by providing examples of the word categories through translanguaging because she did not know the corresponding words in Korean. On the other hand, the third-grade students utilized their metalinguistic awareness when they confirmed with the teacher the meaning of an uncertain Korean word by translanguaging. Although both grade students demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness through translanguaging, the examples by the third-graders appeared that they were more metalinguistically competent than the first-graders, because the third-graders demonstrated their understanding of the Korean words.

Functions of written translanguaging for first- and third-grade English proficient students. The first- and third-grade English proficient students' translanguaging in their writing samples also demonstrated their sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural knowledge. For example, the majority of the first- and third-grade English proficient students' translanguaging in writing was for a sociolinguistic

function (50%, 67%, 70% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, and 63%, 61%, 60% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figures 2 & 4 in Appendix A). Two out of 31 of Yuri's (first-grader) writing samples, for instance, displayed that she repeated her sentences in English after writing in Korean as an example of "bilingual echoing" (Gibbons, 1987, p. 80). Yuri explained that she repeated sentences in English because she wanted to ensure that the reader understood her sentences. Similarly, Gort (2012) showed that first-grade emergent bilinguals used a translating strategy by repeating the word or sentence in order to build dual language lexicon and expand their thoughts. Yet, the bilingual students in her study showed that they repeated words, phrases, or sentences in both languages only when they spoke, and they were less likely to repeat words or sentences in another language in their actual writing. In contrast, Yuri used this translanguaging strategy when she engaged in her writing. It was previously demonstrated that Yuri understood that she had to write in Korean for the bodies of the texts although she could use English for her caption writing. Thus, her translanguaging in this particular writing sample (i.e., her written translation into English) suggests that she engaged in "bilingual echoing" in order to ensure the readers' understanding of her written work, demonstrating that she utilized her sociolinguistic knowledge through translanguaging.

Similarly, another first-grader, Joon, also presented his sociolinguistic knowledge through translanguaging during composition when he did not come up with the word (*baby*; see Excerpt 20) in Korean. Velasco and García (2014) showed a similar writing strategy used by a Korean emergent bilingual kindergartener in their study. The student in their study also wrote down several English words in his Korean writing so that he could revisit the text and switch them into Korean later. Velasco and García explained it as a "bilingual's postponing strategy" (p. 18), which assisted bilingual writers to self-regulate their translanguaging practice. Similar to

their finding, Joon was using a bilingual's postponing strategy by writing down the word ("baby") in English first, switching the word into Korean when he revisited his writing. The findings imply that emergent bilingual writers are able to find corresponding words in another language if they do not know the word in the target language or do not come up with it at that moment, which should be considered a unique bilingual writing strategy.

The translanguaging examples for metalinguistic function were sometimes found in the English proficient students' writing (43%, 31%, 25% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, 31%, 33%, 32% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figure 2 & 4 in Appendix A). They presented their metalinguistic awareness in writing by distinguishing the spaces for composing in Korean and English. They used Korean when they composed the bodies of the texts and captions in English when they included drawings. This translanguaging pattern exemplified the students' metalinguistic awareness because they were able to identify their own language use and regulate their language choices for different purposes in their compositions.

For instance, a first-grader (Joon) wrote the text in Korean but used English during his prewriting stage (to organize his ideas by listing the words) and for his caption writing (see Excerpt 23). In their research, Velasco and García (2014) showed that a Korean bilingual kindergartner wrote his diary entry using Korean, but used English in the captions about his drawing. Velasco and García explained that the student's translanguaging performance was related to the idea of continua of biliteracy – "communication occurs in two (or more) languages in or around writing" (Hornberger, 1990, p. 213) because the student used all the semiotic repertoires/multimodalities available in both writing and drawing. Similar to their finding, Joon employed his full language resources when planning his writing and organizing his ideas, but he distinguished the places for writing in Korean and drawing in English. This finding corroborates

Velasco and García's finding that emergent bilingual writers composed in the target language for the final draft, although they might have used their entire language repertoires during the process of thinking and/or organizing, indicating their metalinguistic competence.

There were only two examples of the first-grade students engaging in inner speech during the process of writing, which demonstrated the metacognitive function of translanguaging (see Figure 2 in Appendix A). One of the first-grader's (Yuri) writing samples showed that she borrowed her linguistic resources from English (*twin*; see Excerpt 29) because she did not know the correct spelling of the word in Korean. On the other hand, another first grader's (Joon) writing sample showed that he drew from his linguistic repertoires in Korean while writing in English since he did not know the correct spelling of the English word (*together*; see Excerpt 30). In order to utilize their linguistic resources, both students engaged in self-directed dialogues (by asking themselves questions) through translanguaging, which assisted them in the process of internalization (Vygotsky, 1987) by using both languages.

A student in Gort's (2012) study made a metacognitive statement when she was rereading and reviewing an English draft that she previously had written in Spanish. When the student found errors in her writing, she verbally articulated through self-talk what and how she would revise her writing in English. By engaging in this metacognitive speech, the student was able to reflect on her errors, rehearse the alternatives, and evaluate the effectiveness of the substitutions. Similar to the student in Gort's study, Yuri and Joon were also engaged in self-talk through translanguaging when they monitored their first draft through metacognitive statements in English and Korean, respectively. The findings imply that when bilingual writers engage in translanguaging during their self-talk, they are able to reflect and evaluate on what they wrote using their metacognitive insight, which might assist them to further develop their drafts.

Similar to their oral translanguaging use, the first- and third-grade English proficient students' uses of translanguaging for sociocultural function were occasionally found in their writing (7%, 4%, 5% for Joon, Yuri, Rena, and 4%, 9%, 9% for Toni, Julie, Suji, respectively) (see Figures 2 & 4 in Appendix A). The sociocultural function of translanguaging was discovered when the students wrote captions in English but produced culturally relevant words (e.g., family members, Korean food, traditional Korean games/clothes) in Korean. The students' translanguaging into Korean enriched the meanings in their English writing and further implied that their use of Korean for culturally relevant words reflected their appropriate sociocultural knowledge.

Edelsky's (1986) study displayed that a first-grade Spanish-speaking student utilized his linguistic knowledge in Spanish when writing in English by using Spanish phonology. The finding provides evidence of emergent bilingual writers' use of translanguaging during their writing process despite the fact that the product was in one language. Other researchers (Edelsky, 1982; Lanauze & Snow, 1989) also found that although Spanish-English bilingual students used what they knew from their L1 (such as writing skills and strategies in Spanish) when writing in their L2 (English), they did not write directly in Spanish. Unlike the students in the previous studies, who did not directly use L1 words or phrases in their L2 compositions, the students in this study directly used linguistic repertoires from Korean when they wrote in English to deliver meanings that were culturally unique and distinctive. Although switching languages in writing was considered a rare behavior in the past (Edelsky, 1982), researchers recently viewed bilinguals' translanguaging while writing as a unique bilingual writing strategy (Canagarajah, 2013; Velasco & García, 2014; Young, 2013). Considering the fact that the translanguaged words by the students in this study were culturally relevant lexical items, they occasionally

demonstrated their sociocultural competence while writing through translanguaging. Overall, the English proficient students' written translanguaging indicates their bilingualism since the students demonstrated that they utilized their full linguistic resources in order to present their voices and deliver their thoughts when writing.

Difference in functions between the two grades' written translanguaging. As discussed previously, both the English proficient first- and third-graders' translanguaging in their writing demonstrated their sociolinguistic competence, metalinguistic awareness, metacognitive insight, and sociocultural knowledge. Close analysis of the students' written translanguaging revealed that there were differences between the first- and third-graders' written language use (see Figure 6 in Appendix B). In terms of the sociolinguistic function, one first grader wrote in English first, demonstrating quicker lexical access to English, because he could not think of the Korean word at the time he was writing. Another first-grade student utilized her dual lexicon by borrowing the words from English because she was unsure about the correct Korean spelling of the words. The other first-grader repeated her sentences in English after writing them in Korean because she wanted to ensure that the reader understood her writing. In contrast, the third-graders did not show any evidence that they had quicker lexical access to English in their Korean writing samples; instead, one of the third-graders identified different linguistic features from the two languages by applying her sociolinguistic knowledge. In addition, another third-grade student manipulated his sociolinguistic knowledge during composition by manipulating Korean linguistic knowledge through translanguaging.

The written translanguaging by the first-graders indicates that they borrowed their linguistic repertoires from English in order to complete their writing in Korean. That is, there was evidence of written translanguaging into English by the first-graders because they were

either not confident in their Korean writing or did not know correct spellings of certain Korean words. On the other hand, the third-graders demonstrated that they flexibly and purposefully utilized their linguistic repertoires both from English and Korean as needed. The findings indicate that the third-graders' written translanguaging for the sociolinguistic function appeared to be more sophisticated than that of the first-graders.

The first- and third-grade English proficient students presented their metalinguistic awareness in writing by distinguishing the spaces for composing in Korean and English. Most of the students' writing samples showed that they used Korean when they composed the bodies of the texts but wrote in English for their caption writing. Unlike the first-graders' findings, the third-graders' writing samples revealed that the words or phrases that they wrote in English for their caption writing were written in Korean in their main texts. In other words, the third-graders utilized their linguistic resources from English for their caption writing but utilized their linguistic repertoires from Korean when writing the bodies of the texts (see Figure 6 in Appendix B).

The first-grade students further utilized their metalinguistic awareness when organizing ideas in English before composing in Korean, when expanding thoughts in English, and when explaining a concept in English. The first-graders demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness by utilizing their linguistic repertoires from English. On the other hand, the third-graders demonstrated their metalinguistic awareness by purposefully utilizing their linguistic repertoires from both languages. Although the third-graders often wrote English words in Korean using Korean characters by transcribing them, one third-grader used English when writing proper nouns because he understood that the words did not represent their literal meanings if he transcribed them using Korean characters. The third-grade student understood that the meanings

of some English words would not be comprehensible when written with Korean characters. In addition, another third-grade student wrote in English when she explained the English language and wrote in Korean when she explained the Korean language because she was thinking in English about the English language but thinking in Korean about the Korean language. The third-graders' language choice demonstrated that their use of translanguaging was purposeful and decisive. The findings indicate that the third-graders were more metalinguistically competent than the first-graders as the older students were more cognizant about their language use in writing and able to distinguish different linguistic features from both languages (see Figure 6 in Appendix B).

In terms of the English proficient students' metacognitive insight, one of the first-graders engaged in inner speech through translanguaging into English for her unknown Korean word and then wrote the word in English. Another first grader's writing sample showed that he drew from his linguistic repertoires in Korean while writing in English after engaging in inner speech since he did not know the correct spelling of the English word. In other words, the first-graders engaged in translanguaging using their metacognitive insight through inner speech because they did not know the correct spellings of the words in either language. On the other hand, one of the third-graders' writing samples showed that he initially provided a word in English but rewrote it in Korean, as he understood that he was doing his homework from the Korean language school. The sample of a third-grader's writing indicates that the older student translanguaged not because he did not know the spelling of the word but because he purposefully did it by identifying the readers of his writing. Although students in both grades engaged in self-directed dialogues through translanguaging in order to utilize their linguistic resources, the third-grader's

findings suggest that the older students were more likely to purposefully utilize their linguistic resources than the first-graders (see Figure 6 in Appendix B).

Patterns of Translanguaging by First- and Third-Grade Korean Proficient Students

The Korean proficient students (Nari, first-grader and Mina, third-grader) mainly uttered their responses in Korean when participating in class discussions. For instance, Nari always spoke in Korean except for two cases – when repeating others' words in English and when there were no corresponding words in Korean. However, both Nari and Mina used English during recess to interact with their English proficient peers. Their use of Korean and English suggests that they were able to flexibly translanguage considering the different settings (during class vs. recess) and interlocutors (Korean teacher vs. English proficient peers). These findings demonstrate that Nari and Mina were using their metalinguistic awareness to choose their languages accordingly and also present their sociolinguistic knowledge as they successfully communicated in both languages.

Analysis of Nari and Mina's writing samples revealed that they composed their writing primarily by using Korean. Nari's writing samples presented only one incident of translanguaging throughout all her writing pieces. When she introduced her English name in her diary entry, she used Korean letters based on the English phonology of her name and then wrote her English name within the parentheses (i.e., 케더린 [Catherine]; see Excerpt 33). This finding demonstrates that Nari was able to use her English phonological awareness and orthographical processing skills – learners' ability to form and access orthographic representations, which are linked to print exposure (Stanovich & West, 1989) – when transcribing her English name into Korean.

Mina's writing samples displayed the occasional use of translanguaging. Mina (the third-grade) used more translanguaging in her writing than Nari. But, Mina's use of translanguaging indicated that she used English when writing the words that only exist in English (e.g., foreign friends' names, English book titles). In other words, unlike Nari, who used Korean for an English proper noun (her English name) by transcribing it using Korean letters based on its phonology, Mina wrote English proper nouns (e.g., her foreign friends' names) in English. In addition, it was detected that Mina engaged in translanguaging during her writing process (i.e., translating the story of opera from English to Korean in her mind; see Excerpt 56), which showed her potential heteroglossic practices (Bakhtin, 1981), although she did not translanguage in her actual writing. Although Mina appeared to be a more Korean-dominant speaker than Nari (Mina was a recent Korean immigrant while Nari was born in the U.S.), she was more likely to engage in translanguaging than Nari. This finding indicates that Nari seemed to be more conscious about her language use and understood that she should write in Korean as much as possible in the Korean language classroom, whereas Mina appeared to be more advanced than Nari in terms of metalinguistic awareness (Bialystok, 1991) as she (the older student) might have developed more cognitive processing skills than Nari (Bialystok et al., 2004; Edwards & Kirkpatrick, 1999).

Unique bilingual speaking and writing strategies. Both the first-and third-grade bilingual students in this study were able to utilize unique bilingual oral communication and writing strategies. In terms of the bilingual strategies in their speech, they were able to employ their full language repertoires in two languages through translanguaging. It was often found that the majority of the students were able to consider their interlocutors' language use and proficiency. The students were also able to regulate their two languages when they employed

translanguaging as metalinguistically cognizant bilinguals. The English proficient students in both grades were further involved in private speech while engaging in a cognitive task, which indicates that they engaged in the process of internalization (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, using language repertoires from Korean when they spoke in English was considered as unique bilingual strategy because it demonstrates that the English proficient students were socioculturally competent in their HL.

The bilingual students in both grades further utilized unique bilingual strategies while writing. The majority of the students used translanguaging practices when they needed in order to build their dual language lexicon and expand their thoughts in their actual writing. For instance, a student engaged in bilingual echoing (Gibbons, 1987) through translanguaging in order to ensure the readers' understanding of her written work. Another student engaged in bilingual's postponing strategy (Velasco & García, 2014), which assisted bilingual writers to self-regulate their translanguaging practices. All the students were able to identify their own language use and regulate their language choices for different purposes in their compositions, which were considered unique bilingual writing strategies. Similar to the findings in their oral language use, the English proficient students sometimes engaged in inner speech through translanguaging in order to utilize their linguistic resources while writing. As researchers recently viewed bilinguals' translanguaging while writing as a unique bilingual writing strategy (Canagarajah, 2013; Velasco & García, 2014; Young, 2013), the English proficient students' writing samples showed that they sometimes translanguaged into Korean while writing in English in order to reflect their appropriate sociocultural knowledge from their HL.

Longitudinal Findings Related to the Focal Third-graders' Language Use

I was interested in understanding to what extent the third-graders had undergone language loss or shift in their home/primary language. In order to seek the answer, I compared the two focal third-graders' (Toni and Julie) language use (Spring 2016) to their previous language use when they were first-graders (Spring 2014) by examining their oral and written language in order to find the patterns of their language use in first- and third-grade. Close examination of Toni's and Julie's spoken and written language in their first- and third-grade classes revealed that there had been a decrease in their use of English but an increase in Korean.

Focal third-grade Korean bilinguals' oral language use and development. In terms of their oral language use, both Toni and Julie often engaged in translanguaging (47%, 55%, respectively) and spoke more in English than in Korean in first-grade (41% in English vs. 12% in Korean for Toni; 32% in English vs. 13% in Korean for Julie). Although their third-grade language use revealed that they still used translanguaging (40%, 43%, respectively), they spoke more in Korean than in English (51% in Korean vs. 9 % in English for Toni; 49% in Korean vs. 8% in English for Julie; see Table 11). There was an increased use of Korean and a decrease in their use of English in terms of their oral language use in the classroom (three times increase when using Korean and three times decrease when using English). The focal students' increased vocabulary knowledge in Korean might be a factor in determining their third-grade language use. When both Toni and Julie were first-graders, they often translanguaged into English for unknown words, but they demonstrated in third-grade that they had acquired the equivalent Korean words that they had not known as first-graders.

Schmitt (2000) pointed out that vocabulary knowledge is considered a critical tool for second language (L2) learners because a limited vocabulary in L2 hinders successful communication. Emphasizing the importance of vocabulary acquisition, Schmitt argued,

“lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language” (p. 55). Similarly, Coady and Huckin (1997) found that L2 learners relied greatly on vocabulary knowledge when communicating and reading, and the lack of their vocabulary knowledge prevented them from developing fluency and reading comprehension. Nation (2001) further explained the close relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language use by stating that vocabulary knowledge enables language use, and at the same time, language use leads to an increase in vocabulary knowledge. As Lewis (1993) argued that “lexis is the core or heart of language” (p. 89), it appeared to be significant for the focal third-graders to acquire productive HL vocabulary knowledge in order to develop greater fluency and expression in Korean.

Beyond the pattern of their language use and the frequency of their translanguaging, the function of the focal third-graders’ translanguaging appeared to be different from their first-grade data. Their translanguaging in first-grade often functioned as an extension of their unknown vocabulary in Korean to deliver their meanings by borrowing their lexical knowledge from English (their proficient language). On the other hand, their translanguaging in third-grade functioned as a way to present their metalinguistic awareness. It was found that Julie used English purposefully in order to emphasize the word (“nervous”; see Excerpt 58), and Toni presented his identity as bilingual by intuitively using English (“meaning”; see Excerpt 60).

Particularly, Julie’s translanguaging was close to the concept of bilingual revoicing (Gort & Sembiente, 2015) because she repeated the word (“nervous”) that she used in Korean. Gort and Sembiente showed that the participating teachers as partners in their study engaged in the translanguaging practice of bilingual revoicing by repeating what the partner teacher said in one language in the other language in order to scaffold their students’ understanding and expand their

language repertoires in the classroom. Similar to how the teachers used translanguaging as bilingual revoicing in Gort and Sembiante's study, Julie also revoiced her language through translanguaging to affirm and highlight her meaning. This finding indicates that Julie utilized her metalinguistic awareness as she purposefully switched the word in English in order to highlight it after she spoke it in Korean. Similarly, Toni's translanguaging also presented his metalinguistic awareness since he intuitively chose the word in English ("meaning") from his metacognitive thinking. In addition, since both Julie and Toni spoke the word in Korean first in their talk but used it again in English with different purposes, the examples further presented their sociolinguistic competence in both languages because they were able to flexibly utilize them.

Focal third-grade Korean bilinguals' written language use and development.

Similar to the comparison found in the focal third-graders' oral language use, there was an increase of Korean and a decrease of English in their written language use. When Toni and Julie were first-graders, they often translanguaged during writing in Korean, and their translanguaging practices were observed both at word and sentence levels. It was revealed that more than half of their first-grade writing included English words or sentences (57% and 53% of English in Toni's and Julie's writing samples) in addition to their use of translanguaging (36%, 27%, respectively). On the other hand, both Toni and Julie as third-graders predominantly wrote in Korean (91% and 88% for each). Although they occasionally inserted English words into their Korean sentences (9% and 12% of word level translanguaging, respectively), they did not engage in sentence level translanguaging in English (see Table 12).

Comparison of their word level translanguaging between the grades showed that when Toni and Julie were in first-grade, they most frequently translanguaged into English for common

nouns, verbs, and adjectives (e.g., cartoon, pretty, invite for each) that exist both in Korean and English, whereas, as third-graders they engaged in word level translanguaging only when there were no equivalent words in Korean (e.g., proper nouns in English such as their foreign friends' names). Similar to their oral language findings, vocabulary knowledge appeared to be important for the focal third-graders' writing performance in Korean.

In terms of the focal students' caption writing, their frequent use of translanguaging was discovered in both grades. Although Toni and Julie had developed Korean writing skills by third-grade, they still provided captions in English, as they believed that writing captions for their drawings was a less formal activity than writing the main text. Velasco and García (2014) reported a similar finding with other first and third-graders' writing samples. Both findings indicate that emergent bilingual writers are able to use all the semiotic repertoires (drawing and writing both in English and Korean) by engaging translanguaging practices.

In addition to the shift in the focal students' written language use and the development in their writing skills in Korean, Toni's and Julie's language preference when writing appeared to have shifted from English to Korean. Whenever they had an option to choose their language to write in first-grade, they always chose English to compose. However, in their third-grade classroom, they were able to deliver their thoughts and ideas using Korean consistently when they engaged in in-class writing and kept their diary entries. These findings indicate that Toni and Julie felt more comfortable writing in English than Korean as first-graders, which might have led them to use more English than Korean during composition in the first-grade classroom. However, their third-grade written language use indicates that they were more likely to use Korean in the Korean language school as they became older. The shift in their writing

performance suggests that the focal third-grade students were able to develop their confidence in writing in Korean as they expanded their Korean vocabulary and increased their Korean practice.

Focal third-grade Korean bilinguals' HL development over time. For the Korean students in the U.S., like Toni and Julie, there has been a pervasive hypothesis that their Korean might be jeopardized due to their minimum exposure to Korean and its reduced status in the U.S. as well as their rapid increase in English usage (Shin & Krashen, 1998). Indeed, previous literatures revealed that when emergent bilinguals attended all-English schools taught only in English, the students tended to experience HL shift or loss because they did not have much exposure and opportunity to develop their HL (Hinton, 2008; Mesthrie et al., 2011; Ro & Cheatham, 2009; Shin, 2005; Tse, 2001; Wong-Fillmore, 1991). However, the present study showed that the focal third-graders who attended English only schools did not appear to lose their HL since they continued to use their HL and were able to improve Korean proficiency by interacting with other Korean speakers at home and Korean language school. The findings showed that Toni and Julie improved their Korean (while developing English) between first- and third-grade thanks to their family members' involvement and the influence of Korean media. The Korean teacher's (Ms. Joen) emphasis on using Korean in third grade also appeared to influence their increased use of Korean. In addition, both Toni and Julie had developed Korean courtesy manners as they appropriately used formal Korean (i.e., honorifics) and customary body gestures (e.g., bowing). Accordingly, their third-grade Korean language use appeared to be more socioculturally competent, compared to their earlier language use. As Cho (2000) suggested, given that the focal third-graders had developed a certain degree of proficiency in their HL, they appeared to have a better understanding and knowledge of cultural values and manners in their HL.

Sociocultural influences on the Korean bilingual first and third-grader's language

use. Interviews with the first- and third-grade students and their mothers as well as the journals kept by the focal mothers suggested that there were sociocultural influences on the students' language use and learning. There seemed to be a close relationship between the parents' attitudes toward HL learning and the children's language use and development. The findings showed that Rena's parents appeared to be the most supportive of their child's English use and learning among the four first-grade parent participants. For Rena's parents, learning English was obligatory, but Korean was an extra language; thus, it was not mandatory for Rena to acquire perfect Korean proficiency. In contrast, Nari's parents believed that teaching HL to their children was of the greatest significance. The parents not only greatly valued teaching Korean to Nari but also accepted the responsibility to teach her Korean as they had positive perspectives towards raising Nari as bilingual.

Indeed, Nari was the student who rarely translanguage and stayed in Korean predominantly when speaking (93%) and writing (99.5%). However, Rena was the English proficient student who presented her oral and written responses most often in English. The parents' liberal views towards Rena's English use and their frequent use of English at home might have influenced Rena to frequently translanguage into English when she spoke in the Korean language classroom. Shin (2005) suggested that maintaining HL did not directly influence Korean children's school performance in the U.S.; thus, Koreanimmigrant parents showed more interest in developing their children's English than Korean. Thus, it appeared that Rena's parents tended to emphasize English to help her to adopt to the mainstream school and society (Hinton, 2008).

However, as Nari's family revealed, Korean immigrant parents' positive attitudes often lead their children to learn and develop Korean because these attitudes influenced the children's motivation to learn Korean at home (Park, 2006; Shin, 2005; Song, 2016). For example, Park (2006) found that immigrant parents' attitude towards HL learning was the most significant factor in maintaining children's HL. Similarly, Shin (2005) found that immigrant parents' support was a critical element in the children's HL language and literacy development. The parents' perspectives and attitudes towards HL learning appeared to coincide with the analysis of the students' language use in the classroom.

Similar to the first-graders' findings, parents' attitudes and behaviors played a pivotal role in the focal third-graders' longitudinal language use between first- and third-grade. Both Toni and Julie had increased their Korean language use between first- and third-grade. Based on the parents' requests, both Toni and Julie's home language use had shifted from English to Korean, and the home practices might have resulted in their increased use of Korean when participating in the Korean language classroom.

The focal third-graders' mothers had engaged in their children's language and literacy learning on a regular base at home by providing Korean book reading time for their Korean reading comprehension and Korean dictation tests for their Korean vocabulary learning. The mothers believed that Korean book reading time had helped their children to develop their reading fluency and comprehension, and Korean dictation tests had assisted their children to improve their Korean vocabulary learning and further their writing. Aligned with Wong-Fillmore's (1991) recommendation that immigrant parents provide adequate support in HL in the home setting in order for their children to learn and develop their HL, the focal third-grade parents in this study played a pivotal role in scaffolding their children's HL development.

When Julie first began school in the U.S., she was discouraged because of her limited English proficiency. At this time, her parents considered learning English to be an important issue for Julie. At the same time, Julie's parents consistently emphasized Korean language learning at home by providing teaching resources (e.g., books, songs, movies) in Korean. This practice appeared to assist Julie in improving her Korean proficiency and literacy skills as time went by. Li (2006) identified the important role of parents in facilitating immigrant children's HL maintenance and development. Although immigrant parents in Li's study experienced barriers in fostering their children's positive attitudes toward HL learning due to the pressure of mastering English, the parents employed a variety of strategies and resources in the home milieu, which facilitated their children's HL learning. Indeed, Lü and Koda (2011) discovered that the home context was ranked as one of the most significant factors that contributed to the emergent bilingual learners' literacy development.

Beyond the parents' attitudes and practices towards HL learning, there were other sociocultural factors that influenced both the first- and third-grade students' language use. For example, for Joon's parents, their future residency played a pivotal role in their attitudes and practices toward their child's language learning, which would depend on the father's job prospects (either in U.S. or Korea); thus, the parents emphasized both Korean and English for Joon to master. In Rena's case, the parents' age of immigration (during their teenage years) as well as their English proficiency seemed to influence their home language use. Although the mother regarded their fluent English as an advantage and a beneficial tool for communication in her family, the parents' frequent use of English at home might have led Rena to use less Korean, which could impact her later Korean language use.

Furthermore, the amount of interaction with other Korean relatives (e.g., grandparents) appeared to be another sociocultural factor that influenced the students' language use. For instance, Nari often communicated with her grandparents who were in Korea by using Skype, and the frequent amount of time that Nari talked to her grandparents seemed to provide her with opportunities to use and practice Korean. Similarly, the focal third-graders, Toni and Julie, whose relatives (grandparents and aunt, respectively) from Korea had visited their homes, also had opportunities to communicate with them by using Korean. Cho (2000) argued that maintaining family ties with relatives (i.e., grandparents) can motivate immigrant children to learn HL and build a positive connection between their HL. Cho found that Korean parents in immigrant families played an important role in forming a meaningful connection between their children and extended family members. The parents in her study tried to make a connection between their children and grandparents in Korea so that their children could have intensive communication with their Korean relatives. In the same sense, Park and Sarkar (2007) found in her study that intensive communication between Korean children in the U.S. and their relatives in Korea avoided the children's HL shift/loss; rather it eventually assisted them to develop their HL proficiency.

For both Toni and Julie, their exposure to Korean media (television programs and songs) also appeared to impact their increased Korean language use over time. Duff (2003) argued that immigrant children can be exposed to heritage culture through media, and culture can help them to develop HL. In addition, since they voluntarily exposed themselves to Korean media, it is assumed that the students had positive attitudes towards Korean culture, and this positive attitude might have encouraged them to develop their Korean language (Cho, 2000).

The existence of siblings and their ages (older vs. younger) also are factors that affect immigrant children's language use. All of the first-graders except Nari (who has a younger brother) have older siblings, while all of the third-graders except Toni have younger siblings (Toni was an only child). The first-graders who have older siblings appeared to use more English with their older siblings because their older siblings used more English when interacting with them. Research findings indicate that siblings play an important role in bilingual families because children speak more English than adults in bilingual homes (Caldas, 2006; Hoff, 2006). The influence of older siblings can reduce the use and acquisition of HL, because older siblings are an important source of English language exposure for young children in bilingual homes (Bridges & Hoff, 2014).

According to Oller and Eilers (2002), younger children who have older school-aged siblings often hear English because English is the language of peer interaction among school-aged children, and the older siblings bring English into bilingual homes. Thus, for younger children, older siblings might be the primary source of the social language (English) input, which can consequently lead to the diminution of HL use. Another study by Caldas (2006) showed that in his French-English bilingual home, both parents spoke only French (HL) to their children, but their oldest child, who spoke English (school language) more than French, used English when talking to his younger siblings. This finding indicates that although younger children can develop the English language more rapidly than their older siblings, they may have less exposure and opportunity to learn HL than the older siblings. Indeed, the first-graders (as younger child in home; Joon, Yuri and Rena) in this study seemed to be more proficient in English than Korean.

Yet, research demonstrated that the rate of HL development is not as rapid in later-born children as in first-born children because parents who speak the HL, are the main language input

for older children, whereas younger children can often receive English input from their older siblings (Hoff, 2006; Hoff-Grinsberg, 1998). Indeed, Nari, the older child, used Korean only at home with her parents and because her younger brother had not learned English, Nari engaged in conversation with her brother by using only Korean. This might be one of the reasons why Nari's home language input was different from other first-graders who are the younger or youngest child in their homes. Although all the first-grade students were second-generation Korean-Americans and were born in the U.S., the difference between their language use and proficiency (English proficient vs. Korean proficient) might have been influenced by the existence and age of their siblings as all the first-grade English proficient students – Joon, Yuri, and Rena - have older siblings, but the first-grade Korean proficient student, Nari, has a younger sibling.

Limitations

The present study had several limitations. First, I investigated the emergent bilingual students' oral language use (Korea, English, and translanguaging) only by collecting primary data at the Korean Language School. The study would have been improved if I could have investigated the students' English language learning and performance at their American schools. Although I collected the first-grade students' use of English and translanguaging by letting them flexibly use both languages in the classroom, I might have overlooked their entire language repertoires when studying their language use only in one setting, where Korean was the language of instruction. Thus, observing the students' language use and collecting data in their American schools could have provided me with a more complete view of their entire language use and performance. I requested permission to observe the students in their American classrooms in the

school district, but was denied permission by the district. None of the students attend public schools outside of the school district.

Second, I was the teacher in the first-grade classroom. Because I was not the teacher for the third-grade students, it was difficult to capture data on their inner speech from the audio-recordings of their class interactions and their writing-related talk (when they talked to themselves) during their compositions. Thus, there was a limited number of third-graders' translanguaging findings that served as their metacognitive insight both in their oral and written language use. Also, although I asked Ms. Joen (the third-grade teacher) to audio-record student talk in the third-grade classroom, I (as a researcher) was not present in the research setting and thus unfamiliar with the classroom context in detail, and I might not have understood some of the data accurately. For instance, I was able to hear the students' voices but could not see their non-verbal language (e.g., body gestures, facial expressions), which might have led to a more precise analysis.

Third, the third-grade teacher's (Ms. Joen) language use was different from my use as the first-grade teacher. Ms. Joen did not encourage her students to use translanguaging nor did she use it; instead, she encouraged her students to use Korean as much as possible in the classroom. On the other hand, I allowed the students to use translanguaging and also translanguaged myself during the class discussion when I delivered lessons or communicated with the students. The differences in the classroom language that the teacher allowed to use as well as their own language use might have led the first-graders to engage more often in translanguaging while the third-graders engaged in it less. Since the teachers' chosen language(s) could influence the students' oral responses and their language learning (Glazier & Seo, 2005), the teachers'

different language use might have resulted in different patterns in the first and third-graders' language use in terms of their translanguaging.

Fourth, I am the teacher in this study; I hold positions as an insider (the classroom teacher) and an outsider (the researcher in this study). My dual role in this study might impact the study's credibility. First of all, the mothers might have considered me as their child's teacher rather than a researcher during the interviews, and have been overly influenced by my own viewpoint toward bilingualism. It could have led them to misrepresent their answers. For example, while answering my questions, the mothers might have considered how their answers could be judged by me (as a teacher) and provided answers to please me (the teacher).

Fifth, because the study focused on the students' language use during class interaction, the students' responses were analyzed but my language use and instruction as the teacher were not the focus of the study and not analyzed. However, it is important to note that teachers' chosen language(s) could possibly influence the students' oral responses. Indeed, an abundance of research has found that the teachers' discourse and assistance have helped students to be engaged in book discussions (Möller & Allen, 2000; Galzler & Seo, 2005). Thus, it might have been worthwhile to investigate whether and how my language use assisted the students' Korean language use and their oral performance in Korean, which might have affected their use of translanguaging.

Lastly, my own subjectivity as a teacher of the students might have influenced my data analysis. I hoped that by adopting the triangulation method – by analyzing transcripts of the students' language use during their class interaction and recess and by examining interview results with the students and their mothers –I could ensure that I had “the correct facts by homogenization of overlap” (Okely, 2012, p. 82), which could augment the study's credibility.

In fact, Agar (1996) argued that “an isolated observation cannot be understood unless you understand its relationships to other aspects of the situation in which it occurred” (p. 125, as cited in Wolcott, 2005, p. 67). Thus, in line with these researchers’ arguments, I tried to have an inclusive perspective when analyzing all the data and discussing and reporting the results.

Implications

The findings of this study display how first- and third-grade Korean emergent bilingual students used both Korean and English when they spoke and wrote in HL classrooms, where the language of instruction was in Korean. The findings revealed that the emergent bilingual students were able to use their entire language repertoires in order to successfully participate in verbal interactions and writing tasks. It was discovered that the amount of and functions of the students’ translanguageing appeared differently in terms of the context (e.g., age/grade level, teachers’ influence, language proficiency, interlocutors’ language use). Considering these findings, I first provide directions for future research in the fields of bilingualism and biliteracy. Then, I provide implications for educators and parents of emergent bilingual students to better support bilingual children’s language and literacy learning.

Implications for researchers. Researchers have to understand that although the school provides instruction in one language, if the classroom teachers allow students to translanguage, the classroom can become a vibrant bilingual space where students and teachers can display dynamic bilingualism that allows them to use their entire language repertoires flexibly. As shown in this study, although the third-grade teacher did not encourage translanguageing, the third-graders provided evidence that they utilized their full language resources as much as they needed to engage in class discussions and literacy activities. The findings about translanguageing in this study corroborated previous findings (e.g., Martinez et al., 2015) that translanguageing is

not solely a teacher's pedagogical approach or strategy to enhance bilingual children's instruction; rather, it is also the way that emergent bilinguals actually mediate their understanding and advance their learning. Thus, researchers should be aware that translanguaging practices can operate naturally and effortlessly in settings when bilinguals interact with one another.

Researchers need to further investigate how HL teachers can use translanguaging as pedagogical strategies to improve their instruction for bilingual students' language and literacy learning (Jiang et al., 2014). In this way, researchers can inform teachers of HL learners about how their translanguaging practices can provide the hybrid learning space and time for the students to use all their available language and linguistic resources in the classroom. These findings will help researchers to better understand how to support translanguaging practices in HL classrooms without jeopardizing students' access to their HL.

Despite the growing amount of research on bilingual students' translanguaging practices, additional researchers need to examine how translanguaging is used by different types of emergent bilinguals (e.g., children in various grade levels whose languages are other than Spanish-English). In this way, researchers can understand whether and how bilingual students from other language minority groups utilize their entire language and linguistic resources. Similarly, more research is needed to examine how translanguaging practices are presented in other instructional settings other than HL and dual language classrooms (López-Velásquez & García, 2017) in order to understand how teachers can engage bilingual students in diverse types of translanguaging practices to enhance their understanding while learning.

Researchers in bilingual fields have contributed to this field of study by providing findings about how bilingual children use their entire language repertoires to enhance their

learning in academic settings (Duran & Palmer, 2014; Worthy et al., 2013). Further study of bilingual children's translanguaging practices when writing beyond their use of oral translanguaging can provide much more understanding about what emergent bilingual writers do with their linguistic repertoires (Canagarajah, 2013; Velasco & García, 2014). In addition, it is worthwhile to investigate how teachers' translingual modeling can scaffold emergent bilingual students' literacy practices and facilitate the dynamic practice of translanguaging in writing in classrooms.

Acknowledging the argument that translanguaging practices include the ways in which bilinguals utilize their language resources in their everyday interactions (García & Leiva, 2014), we need more studies about how translanguaging occurs in homes, families, and communities beyond its presence in the classroom (Donor et al., 2007; Song, 2016). It is important to keep in mind that translanguaging practices work as a vehicle for emergent bilingual children to expand their understanding and enrich their learning in both academic and non-academic settings (Hornberger, 2003). Therefore, understanding bilingual children's languaging practices at home should be a first step to comprehend how and when they utilize their two languages as a way of becoming bilinguals.

When researchers pay close attention to bilingual children's complex and rich linguistic experiences and resources at home as well as bilingual families' efforts to support their children's development of their HL, they can advocate and empower bilingual families' and their children's linguistic and cultural resources as valuable assets (Gregory, Long, & Volk, 2004). By focusing on the ways in which bilingual children participate in home- and community-based discourses through translanguaging, researchers can contribute to construct the practices and pedagogies to expand emergent bilingual children language and literacy repertoires, to create

multiple opportunities for their language and literacy learning, and to develop bilingual instructional strategies for heritage speakers to mediate learning ecologies. These directions for future research will help us to understand how to support bilingual children's overall language and literacy learning and development.

Implications for educators. Teachers of bilingual students should be aware that pedagogies based on language separation can easily marginalize the students' HLs because teachers do not appreciate and value the students' diverse linguistic and cultural assets and their potential competence as emergent bilinguals. Thus, language minority or heritage language teachers should motivate students to use their HLs strategically in the classroom in order for the students to not lose their HL and further support their HL maintenance and development. In the same sense, it is imperative for teachers to not emphasize English only in the classroom but to be open towards multilingualism (Piccardo, 2013). Educators should be aware that collaborative activities that allow students to use their HLs in the classroom can contribute to immigrant children having positive learning experiences in their HLs and English (Oh, & Fuligni, 2011; Song, 2016).

When teachers welcome what bilingual students already know about languaging and value them as potential competent bilinguals, they can create spaces that assist students to draw on their bilingual skills and strategies. In other words, teachers must move beyond the mere acceptance of translanguaging to create a supportive classroom environment in which students can be comfortable using their language(s) as they participate in collaborative discussions. By providing spaces and/or times in the classroom in which dynamic bilingualism is modeled and encouraged, teachers can also purposefully promote dynamic bilingualism. Thus, teachers

should appreciate bilingual students' hybrid and dynamic language practices as their processes of learning and find a way to integrate their linguistic resources in their learning.

Specifically, teachers can encourage bilingual students to engage in translanguaging practices when they verbally communicate and participate in writing tasks. Educators should also know that they can scaffold bilingual students' translanguaging and translingual practices by modeling so that the students can engage in dynamic practice of translanguaging in the classroom. As García and Sylvan (2011) defined translanguaging as "the process by which bilingual students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices in order to make sense of, and communicate in, multilingual classrooms" (p. 389), teachers of bilingual students have to keep in mind that bilingualism occurs when teachers and students negotiate and mediate their learning together.

Implications for parents. Immigrant parents whose children are emergent bilinguals should acknowledge that they play a pivotal role in their children's HL maintenance and development. This study showed that when the parents had positive attitudes towards their children's HL language, the children were more likely to use Korean at home and develop it over the years. The findings showed that the emergent bilingual students were more or less exposed to and practiced their HL depending on their parents' attitude, perspective, and decision of language use at home. Thus, parents of emergent bilingual children should encourage the use of HL at home and provide diverse opportunities for their children to make use of it if they want their children to develop their HL.

In terms of oral proficiency development, parents should encourage their children to use HL at conversational level with their family members at home. As this study showed, immigrant parents should understand that communicating with other family relatives from the origin of

country can provide an opportunity for children to learn and practice HL. Parents can also promote their children's literacy skills in HL by providing a variety of reading materials and spending reading and writing time with their children together. In addition, as this study exhibited the positive impact of media in HL learning, parents can provide song, television program, or video resources in HL so that their children are more likely to be motivated in developing HL from their positive learning experiences.

REFERENCES

- Agar, M. (1996). *The professional stranger: An informal introduction to ethnography*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- August D., & Hakuta K. (1998). *Educating Language-Minority Children*. Washington: National Research Council, Institute of Medicine, National Academy Press.
- August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2010). Response to a review and update on “Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth.” *Journal of Literacy Research*, 42(3), 341-348.
- Bailey, B. (2007). Heteroglossia and boundaries. In M. Heller (Ed.), *Bilingualism: A social approach* (pp. 257–276). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. (M. Holquist, Ed.; C. Emerson & M. Holquist, Trans.). Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. M. (1984). *Problems of dostoevsky's poetics*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Bauer, E. B., Presiado, V., & Colomer, S. (2017). Writing through partnership: Fostering trans-linguaging in children who are emergent bilinguals. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 49(1), 10-37.
- Bernardini, P., & Schlyter, S. (2004). Growing syntactic structure and code-mixing in the weaker language: the Ivy Hypothesis. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 7(1), 49– 69.
- Bialystok, E. (1991). Metalinguistic dimensions of bilingual language proficiency. In Bialystok, E. (Ed.), *Language processing in bilingual children* (pp. 113–140). London, England:

Cambridge University Press.

Bialystok, E., Craik, F. I., Klein, R., & Viswanathan, M. (2004). Bilingualism, aging, and cognitive control: evidence from the Simon task. *Journal of Psychology Aging, 19*(2), 290-303.

Blackledge, A., & Creese, A. (2010). *Multilingualism: A critical perspective*. London, UK: Continuum.

Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, B. M., Otto, S., & Stuart-Faris, N. (2004). *Discourse analysis and the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic perspective*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. (2003). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods*. New York: Allyn and Bacon.

Bokamba, E. G. (1989). Are there syntactic constraints on code-mixing? *World Englishes, 8*, 277-292.

Brecht, R. D., & Ingold, C. W. (2002). *Tapping a national resource: Heritage language in the United States*. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center. Retrieved May 30, 2006, from <http://www.cal.org/ericcLL/digest/0202brecht.html>

Bridge, K., & Hoff, E. (2014). Older sibling influences on the language environment and language development of toddlers in bilingual homes, *Applied Psycholinguist, 35*(2), 225–241.

Busch, B. (2012). The linguistic repertoire revisited. *Applied Linguistics 33*(5), 503–523.

Caldas S. J. (2006). *Raising bilingual-biliterate children in monolingual cultures*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2011). Codemeshing in academic writing: Identifying teachable strategies of translanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*, 401–417.

- Canagarajah, A. S. (Ed.). (2013). *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and schools*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Chinen, K., & Tucker, R. G. (2005). Heritage language development: Understanding the roles of ethnic identity and Saturday school participation. *Heritage Language Journal*, 3(1). 27-59.
- Cho, G. (2000). The role of heritage language in social interactions and relationships: Reflections from a language minority group. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 24, 369-384.
- Cho, G., Cho, K-S., & Tse, L. (1997). Why ethnic minorities want to develop their heritage language: The case of Korean American. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, 10, 106-112.
- Cho, G., & Krashen, S. (1998). The negative consequences of heritage language loss and why we should care. In S. Krashen, L. Tse, & J. McQuillan (Eds.), *Heritage language development* (pp. 31-39). Culver City, CA: Language Education Associates.
- Chung, K. (2008). *Korean English fever in the U.S.: Temporary migrant parents' evolving beliefs about normal parenting practices and children's natural language learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.
- Coady, J., & Huckin, T. (1997). *Second language vocabulary acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), 402-423.
- Crawford, J. (2004). *Educating English learners: Language diversity in the classroom* (Vol. 5).

- Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Education Services.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for teaching and learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, 103-115.
- Creswell, J. (1998). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49, 222-251.
- Cummins, J. (1991). Interdependence of first- and second-language proficiency in bilingual children. In E. Bialystok (Ed.), *Language processing in bilingual children* (pp. 70–89). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Cummins, J. (2005). A proposal for action: Strategies for recognizing heritage language competence as a learning resource within the mainstream classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 89, 585–592.
- Daniel, S. M., & Pacheco, M. B. (2016). Translanguaging practices and perspectives of four multilingual teens. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 59(6), 653-663.
- De Houwer, A. (2007). Parental language input patterns and children’s bilingual use. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 28, 411–424.
- Denicolo, P. C. (2016). “School within a school”: Examining implementation barriers in a Spanish/English transitional bilingual education program. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 39(2). 91-106
- Dorner, L. M., Orellana, M. F., & Li-Grining, C. P. (2007). “I helped my mom,” and it helped me: Translating the skills of language brokers into improved standardized test scores. *American Journal of Education*, 113(3), 451–478.

- Dressler, C., & Kamil, M. L. (2006). First- and Second-Language Literacy. In D. August & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth* (pp. 197-238). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Duff, P. A. (2003). New directions in second language socialization research. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 3, 309-339.
- Durán, L., & Palmer, D. (2014). Pluralist discourses of bilingualism and translanguaging talk in classrooms. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 14, 367-388.
- Duursma, E., Romero-Contreras, S., Szűber, A., Proctor, C. P., Snow, C., & August, D., (2007). The role of home literacy and language environment on bilinguals' English and Spanish vocabulary development. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 28, 171-190.
- Edelsky, C. (1982). Writing in a bilingual program: The relation of L1 and L2 texts. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(2), 211-228.
- Edelsky, C. (1986). *Writing in a bilingual program: Había una vez*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Edwards, H. T., & Kirkpatrick, A. G. (1999). Metalinguistic awareness in children: A developmental progression, *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 28(4), 313-329.
- Escamilla, K., & Hopewell, S. (2010). Transitions to biliteracy: Creating positive academic trajectories for emerging bilinguals in the United States. In J. Petrovic (Ed.), *International perspectives on bilingual education: Policy, practice, controversy*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing. (pp. 69-93).
- Escamilla, K., Hopewell, S., Butvilofsky, S., Sparrow, W., Soltero-Gonzalez, L., Ruiz-Figuero, O., & Escamilla, M. (2014). *Biliteracy from the start: Literacy squared in action*. Caslon. Philadelphia; PA.

- Esquinca, A., Araujo, B., & de la Piedra, M. T. (2014). Meaning making and translanguaging in a two-way dual-language program on the U.S.- Mexico border, *Bilingual Research Journal*, 37(2), 164-181.
- Flores, N., & Schissel, J.L. (2014). Dynamic bilingualism as the norm: Envisioning a heteroglossic approach to standards-based reform. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(3), 454-479.
- Fogarty, R. (1994). *How to teach for metacognition*. Palatine, IL: IRI/Skylight Publishing.
- Francis, D. J., Lesaux, N. K., & August, D. (2006). Language of instruction. In D. August, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth* (pp. 365-414). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gandara, P., & Hopkin, M. (2010). *Forbidden language: English learners and restrictive language policies*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- García, E. E. (2005). *Teaching and learning in two languages: Bilingualism and schooling in the United States*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- García, G. E., McKoon, G. , & August, D. (2006). Synthesis: Language and literacy assessment. In D. August, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second-language learners: A report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth* (pp. 583-596). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- García, G. E, & Godina, H. (2017). A window into bilingual reading: The bilingual reading practices of fourth-grade, Mexican-American children who are emergent bilinguals. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 49(2), 273–301.
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century*. Malden, MA: Wiley- Blackwell.
- García, O. (2011). Educating New York’s bilingual children: Constructing a future from the past. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14, 133–153.

- García, O. (2014). What is translanguaging? Expanded questions and answers for U.S. educators. In S. Hesson, K. Seltzer, & H. H. Woodley (Eds.), *Translanguaging in curriculum and instruction: A CUNY-NYSIEB guide for educators* (pp. 1-13). New York, NY: CUNY- NYSIEB.
- García, O., Kleifgen, J. A., & Falchi, L. (2008). *From English language learners to emergent bilinguals* (Equity Matters: Research Review No. 1). New York, NY: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- García, O., & Leiva, L. (2014). Theorizing and enacting translanguaging for social justice. In A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy* (Vol. 20, pp. 199-216). Heidelberg, Germany: Springer.
- García, O., & Sylvan, C. (2011). Pedagogies and Practices in Multilingual Classrooms: Singularities in Pluralities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 385-400.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gee, J. P. (1996). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses* (2nd ed.). London: Taylor & Francis
- Gee, J. P. (2012). *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Genesee, F. (2008). Bilingual first language acquisition: Evidence from Montreal. *Diversite urbaine*, 9-26.
- Genesee, F., Geva, E., Dressler, C., & Kamil, M. L. (2006). Synthesis: Cross-linguistic

- relationships. In D. August, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second-language learning: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth* (pp. 153-174). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Genesee, F., Nicoladis, E., & Paradis, J. (1995). Language differentiation in early bilingual development. *Journal of Child Language*, 22, 611-631.
- Gibbons, J. (1987). *Code-mixing and code-choice: A Hong Kong case study*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *Discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Glazier, J. & Seo, J. (2005). Multicultural literature and discussion Multicultural literature and discussion as mirror and window? *International Reading Association*, 48, 688-700.
- Golberg, H., Paradis, J., Crago, M. (2008). Lexical acquisition over time in minority L1 children learning English as a L2. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 29, 1–25
- Goldenberg, C. (2011). Reading instruction for English language learners. In M. Kamil, P. D. Pearson, E. B. Moje, & P. Afflerbach (Eds.), *The handbook of reading research* (Vol. 4, pp. 684–710). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Gort, M. (2008). “You give me idea!”: Collaborative strides toward bilingualism, biliteracy, and cross-cultural understanding in a two-way partial immersion program. *Multicultural Perspectives*, 10, 192-200.
- Gort, M. (2012). Evaluation and revision processes of young bilinguals in a dual language program. In E. B. Bauer, & M. Gort (Eds.), *Early biliteracy development: Exploring young learners’ use of their linguistic resources* (pp. 90-110). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Gort, M., & Sembiante, S. (2015). Navigating hybridized language learning spaces through

translanguaging pedagogy: Dual language preschool teachers' languaging practices in support of emergent bilingual children's performance of academic discourse.

International Multilingual Research Journal, 9, 7–25.

Gravelle, M. (1996). *Supporting bilingual learners in schools*. Stoke-on-Trent, UK: Trentham Books.

Gregory, E., Long, S., & Volk, D. (2004). *Many pathways to literacy: Learning with siblings, peers, grandparents, and in community settings*. London, UK: Routledge.

Grumperz, J. J. (1997). The Retrieval of Sociocultural Knowledge in Conversation. *Poetics Today*, 1(2): 273-286.

Hakuta, K., & Diaz, R. (1985). *Bilingualism and cognitive development: Three perspectives and methodological implications*. (CLEAR Technical Report 2). Los Angeles, CA : Center for Language Education and Research, University of California, Los Angeles.

Han, H. (2011). "Am I Korean American?" *Beliefs and practices of parents and children living in two languages and two cultures*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold.

Heath, S.B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Heller, M. (1999). *Linguistic minorities and modernity: A sociolinguistic ethnography*. Harlow, UK: Addison- Wesley Longman.

Hinton, L. (2008). Trading tongues: Loss of heritage languages in the United States. In A. Reyes & A. Lo (Eds.). *Beyond Yellow English: Toward a Linguistic Anthropology of Asian Pacific America: Toward a Linguistic Anthropology of Asian Pacific America*. (pp.331-346). Oxford University Press.

- Hoff, E. (2006). How social contexts support and shape language development. *Developmental Review*, 26, 55-88.
- Hoff-Ginsberg E. (1998). The relation of birth order and socioeconomic status to children's language experience and language development. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 19, 603–629.
- Hornberger, N.H. (1990). Creating successful learning contexts for bilingual literacy. *Teachers College Record*, 92 (2), 212–229.
- Hornberger, N. H. (2003). Continua of biliteracy. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Continua of biliteracy: An ecological framework for educational policy, research, and practice in multilingual settings* (pp. 3–34). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Jiang, Y. B., García, G. E., & Willis, A. I. (2014). Code-Mixing as a Bilingual Instructional Strategy. *Bilingual Research Journal: The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education*, 37(3), 311-326.
- Jonsson, K. (2013). Translanguaging and multilingual literacies: diary-based case studies of adolescents in an international school. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 224, 85–117
- Jørgensen, J. N., & Holmen, A. (Eds) (1997). *The development of successive bilingualism in school-age children. Copenhagen Studies in Bilingualism*, 27. Copenhagen: Royal Danish School of Educational Studies.
- Kasuya, H. (1998). Determinants of language choice in bilingual children: The role of input. *The International Journal of Bilingualism*, 2(3), 327-346.
- Keene, E. & Zimmerman, S. (1997). *Mosaic of Thought*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Krashen, S. (1998). Language shyness and heritage language development. In S. Krashen, L.

- Tse, & J. McQuillan (Eds.), *Heritage language development* (pp. 31-39). Culver City, CA: Language Education Associates.
- Lanauze, M., & Snow, C. E. (1989). The relation between first and second language writing skills: Evidence from Puerto Rican elementary school children in bilingual programs. *Linguistics and Education, 1*(4), 323–339.
- Lee, J. S. (2002). The Korean language in American: The role of cultural identity in heritage language learning. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 15*, 117-133.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach*. Language Teaching Publications.
- Lewis, C., Enciso, P., & Moje, E. B. (2007). Introduction: Reframing sociocultural research on literacy: Identity, agency, and power. In C. Lewis, P. Enciso, & E. B. Moje (Eds.), *Reframing sociocultural research on literacy: Identity, agency, and power* New York, NY: Routledge.
- Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualization. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 18*, 655-670.
- Li, G. (2006). The role of parents in heritage language maintenance and development. In K. Kondo-Brown (Eds.). *Heritage Language Development: Focus on East Asian Immigrants* (pp. 15-32). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Lightsey, G. E., & Frye, B. J. (2004). Teaching metalinguistic skills to enhance early reading instruction. *Reading Horizons, 45*(1), 27-37.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. J. (2001). *Dual language education*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- López-Velásquez, A. M., & García, G. E. (2017). The bilingual reading practices and performance of two Hispanic first-graders. *Bilingual Research Journal, 40*(3), 246-261.
- Lü, C., & Koda, K. (2011). The impact of home language and literacy support on English-

- Chinese biliteracy acquisition among Chinese heritage language learners. *Heritage Language Journal*, 8, 119-231
- Martin–Beltran, M. (2010). The two-way language bridge: Co-constructing bilingual language learning opportunities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94 (2), 254-277.
- Martínez, R.A., Hikida, M., & Durán, L. (2015). Unpacking ideologies of linguistic purism: How dual language teachers make sense of everyday translanguaging. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9(1), 26–42.
- Martínez-Roldán, C. M. (2015). Translanguaging practices as mobilization of linguistic resources in a Spanish/English bilingual after-school program: An analysis of contradictions. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9(1), 43– 58.
- Meichenbaum, D. (1985). Teaching thinking: A cognitive-behavioral perspective. In S. F., Chipman, J. W. Segal, & R. Glaser (Eds.), *Thinking and learning skills, Vol. 2: Research and open questions*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Melo-Pfeifer, S. (2015). The role of the family in heritage language use and learning: Impact on heritage language policies, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18(1), 26-44.
- Mertens, D. M. (2015). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mesthrie, R., Swann, J., Deumert, A., & Leap, W. (2001). *Introducing Sociolinguistics*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Min, H. (1997). *The code-switching behavior of three Mandarin-English speaking children*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

- Mizne, C. A. (1997). Teaching sociolinguistic competence in the ESL classroom. Senior Thesis Projects, 1993-2002. Available at: http://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_interstp2/20
- Moll, L., Amanti, C., Neff, D. and Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, 2, 132-141.
- Möller, K. J., & Allen, J. (2000). Connecting, resisting and searching for safer places: Students respond to Mildred Taylor's *The Friendship*. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 32, 145-186.
- Montrul, S. (2008). *Incomplete acquisition in bilingualism: Re-examining the age factor*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Montrul, S. (2010). Current issues in heritage language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 3-23.
- Murphy, V. (2014). *Second language learning in the early school years: Trends and contexts*. Oxford University Press.
- Nagy, W. E., García, G. E., Durgunoglu, A., & Hancin-Bhatt, B. (1993). Spanish-English bilingual children's use and recognition of cognates in English reading. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 21, 241-259
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nesteruk, O. (2010). Heritage language maintenance and loss among the children of Eastern European immigrants in the USA, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 31, 3, 271-286,
- Okely, J. (2012). *Anthropological Practice: Fieldwork and the Ethnographic Method*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.

- Oh, J. S., & Fuligni, A. J. (2010). The role of heritage language development in the ethnic identity and family relationships of adolescents from immigrant backgrounds. *Social Development, 19*, 202-220.
- Oller, D. K., & Eilers, R. (2002). *Language and literacy in bilingual children*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Palmer, D. K., Martínez, R. A., Mateus, S. G., & Henderson, K. (2014). Reframing the debate on language separation: Toward a vision for translanguaging pedagogies in the dual language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*, 757-772.
- Pan, B. A., (1995). Code negotiation in bilingual families: “My body starts speaking English” *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 16*(4), 315-327
- Park, E. (2006). Grandparents, grandchildren, and heritage language. In Kondo-Brown, K. (Ed.), *Heritage language development: Focus on East Asian immigrants* (pp. 57-86). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Park, S. M., & Sarkar, M. (2007). Parents’ attitudes toward heritage language maintenance for their children and their efforts to help their children maintain the heritage language: A case study of Korean-Canadian immigrants. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 20*(3), 223-235.
- Piccardo, E. (2013). Plurilingualism and curriculum design: Toward a synergic vision. *TESOL Quarterly, 47*(3), 600-614.
- Reyes, I. (2004). Functions of code switching in schoolchildren’s conversations. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(1), 77-98.
- Ro, Y. E., & Cheatham, G. A. (2009). Biliteracy and bilingual development in a second-

- generation Korean child: A case study, *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 23, 290-308.
- Roman, L. G., & Apple, M. (1990). Is naturalism a move away from positivism? In E.W. Eisner & A. Peshkin (Eds.). *Qualitative inquiry in education* (pp. 38-73). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Rumbaut, R. (2000). *Children of immigrants and their achievement: The role of family, acculturation, social class, gender, ethnicity, and school contexts*. Mimeograph, Michigan State University.
- Rumbaut, R. (2001). *Legacies: The story of the immigrant second generation*. Russell Sage Foundation.
- Saville-Troike, M. (2003). *The ethnography of communication: An introduction* (3rd ed.). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Sayer, P. (2011). Translanguaging, TexMex, and bilingual pedagogy: Emergent bilinguals learning through the vernacular. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(1), 63–88.
- Schmid, M. S. (2010). Languages at play: The relevance of L1 attrition to the study of bilingualism. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 13, 1-7
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schwandt, T. A. (1994). Constructivist, Interpretivist Approaches to Human Inquiry. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 118-138). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Shanahan, T., & Beck, I. L. (2006). Effective literacy teaching for English-language learners. In D. August & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second-language learners; Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth* (pp.

- 415–488). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Shin, S. J. (2005). *Developing in two languages: Korean children in America*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Shin, F. H., & Krashen, S. (1996). Teacher attitudes toward the principles of bilingual education and toward students' participation in bilingual programs: Same or different? *Bilingual Research Journal*, 20, 45–53.
- Sims Bishop, R. (1990). Mirrors, windows, and sliding glass doors. *Perspectives*, 6(3), ix–xi.
Available at: http://www.rif.org/multi_campaign_windows_mirrors.msp
- Sims Bishop, R. (1992). Children's books in a multicultural world: A view from the USA. In E. Evans (Ed.), *Reading against racism* (pp. 18–38). Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Siu, C. T. & Ho, C. S. (2015). Cross-language transfer of syntactic skills and reading comprehension among young Cantonese–English bilingual students. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 50(3), 313–336
- Slavin, R. E., & Cheung, A. (2005). A synthesis of research on language of reading instruction for English language learners. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(2), 247–284.
- Smith, P., & Murillo, L. (2015). Theorizing translanguaging and multilingual literacies through human capital theory, *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9, 59–73.
- Snow, C. E., Burns, S. M., & Griffin, P. (Eds.) (1998). The process of learning to read. *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children*. Washington, D. C.: National Academy Press, 41–84.
- Song, K. (2016). “‘Okay, I will say in Korean and then in American’”: Translanguaging practices in bilingual homes. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 16(1), 84–106

- Soltero-González, L., Escamilla, K., & Hopewell, S. (2012). Changing teachers' perceptions about the writing abilities of emerging bilingual students: towards a holistic bilingual perspective on writing assessment, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(1), 71-94.
- Spiggle, S. (1994). Analysis and Interpretation of Qualitative Data in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21(3), 491–503,
- Suarez-Orozco, C., Suarez-Orozco, M., & Todorova, I. (2008). *Learning a new land: Immigrant students in American society*. Harvard University Press.
- Stake, R. E. (1994). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 236-247). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Stanovich, K. E., & West, R. F. (1989). Exposure to print and orthographic processing. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24(4), 402-433
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Street, B. V. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice* CUP: Cambridge
- Street, B. V. (2001). The new literacy studies. In E. Cushman, G.R. Kintgen, B.M. Kroll, & M. Rose (Eds.), *Literacy: A critical sourcebook* (pp. 430-442). Boston: St. Martin's Press.
- Street, B. V. (2003). The implications of the "New Literacies Studies" for literacy education. In S. Goodman, J. Maybin, & N. Mercer (Eds.), *Language, literacy, and education: A reader* (pp. 77–88). Stoke-on-Trent, UK: Trentham Books.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through

- collaborative dialogue. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97–114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tracey, D. H., & Morrow, L. M. (2006). *Lenses on reading: An introduction to theories and models*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Tse, L. (1996). Language brokering in linguistic minority communities: The case of Chinese- and Vietnamese-American students. *The Bilingual Research Journal*, 20(3), 485-498.
- Tse, L. (2001). *Why don't they learn English? Separating fact from fallacy in the U.S. language debate*. New York; London: Teachers College Press.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2016). *Profile of selected social characteristics: Miami-Dade County, FL*. Retrieved from <http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservice/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?src=bkmk>
- van Compernelle, R. A., & Williams, L. (2012). Reconceptualizing sociolinguistic competence as mediated action: Identity, meaning-making, agency. *Modern Language Journal*, 96(2), 234-250.
- van Dijk, T. A. (1990). Social cognition and discourse. In H. Giles and R. P. Robinson (Eds), *Handbook of Social Psychology and Language*, (pp.163-183). Chichester: Wiley.
- Veltman, C. (1983). *Language shift in the United States*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Velasco, P., & García, O. (2014). Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners. *Bilingual Research Journal: The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education*, 37, 6-23.
- Vihman, M. (1998). A developmental perspective on code-switching: Conversations between a pair of siblings. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 2(1), 45-84.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.

- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wei, L. (2011). Moment Analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 1222-1235.
- Wei, L., & Wu, C. (2009). Polite Chinese children revisited: Creativity and the use of code-switching in the Chinese complementary school classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 193-211.
- Wolcott, H. F. (2005). *The Art of Fieldwork* (2nd edition). Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Wong-Fillmore, L. W. (1991). When learning a second language means losing the first. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 6(3), 323–347.
- Worthy, J., Durán, L., Hikida, M., Pruitt, A., & Peterson, K. (2013). Spaces for dynamic bilingualism in read-aloud discussions: Developing and strengthening bilingual and academic skills. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 36, 311-328.
- You, B. K. (2005). Children negotiating Korean American ethnic identity through their heritage language. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 29, 712-721.
- Young, V. A. (2013). Keep code-meshing. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Literacy as translingual practice: Between communities and schools* (pp. 139–145). New York, NY: Routledge.

APPENDIX A: TRANSLANGUAGING FOR EACH FUNCTION

Figure 1: Frequency of first-graders' oral translanguaging for each function

	Word-level translanguaging (English words in Korean speech)	Word-level translanguaging (Korean words in English speech)	Translanguaging at sentence level (from Korean to English)	Translanguaging at sentence level (from English to Korean)	Total
Sociolinguistic knowledge					
Joon	177		11	6	194 (49%)
Yuri	157		12	4	173 (48%)
Rena	124		21	3	148 (57%)
Nari	22		0	3	25 (50%)
Metalinguistic awareness					
Joon	115		9		124 (32%)
Yuri	123		8		131 (36%)
Rena	67		2		69 (27%)
Nari	10		4		14 (28%)
Metacognitive insight					
Joon			25	16	41 (10%)
Yuri			11	13	24 (7%)
Rena			14	11	25 (10%)
Nari			4	3	7 (14%)
Sociocultural knowledge					
Joon		32		2	34 (9%)
Yuri		29		2	31 (9%)
Rena		13		3	16 (6%)
Nari		4		0	4 (8%)

Figure 2: Frequency of first-graders' written translinguaging for each function

	Word-level translinguaging (English words in Korean sentences)	Word-level translinguaging (Korean words in English sentences)	Translinguaging at sentence level (from Korean to English)	Translinguaging at sentence level (from English to Korean)	Total
Sociolinguistic knowledge					
Joon	22		0	0	22 (50%)
Yuri	30		4	0	34 (64%)
Rena	28		9	4	41 (70%)
Nari	1		0	0	1 (100%)
Metalinguistic awareness					
Joon	17		0		18 (41%)
Yuri	13		3		16 (30%)
Rena	12		3		15 (25%)
Nari	0		0		0
Metacognitive insight					
Joon	0	1			1 (2%)
Yuri	1	0			1 (2%)
Rena	0	0			0
Nari	0	0			0
Sociocultural knowledge					
Joon		2			2 (7%)
Yuri		2			2 (4%)
Rena		3			3 (5%)
Nari		0			0

Figure 3: Frequency of third-graders' oral translanguaging for each function

	Word-level translanguaging (English words in Korean speech)	Word-level translanguaging (Korean words in English speech)	Translanguaging at sentence level (from Korean to English)	Translanguaging at sentence level (from English to Korean)	Total
Sociolinguistic knowledge					
Toni	89		12	10	111 (63%)
Julie	106		9	11	126 (61%)
Suji	83		14	7	104 (60%)
Mina	17		2	5	24 (73%)
Metalinguistic awareness					
Toni	49		6		55 (31%)
Julie	64		4		68 (33%)
Suji	48		7		55 (32%)
Mina	5		3		8 (24%)
Metacognitive insight					
Toni			1		1 (1%)
Julie			0		0
Suji			0		0
Mina			0		0
Sociocultural knowledge					
Toni		8		1	9 (5%)
Julie		9		2	11 (6%)
Suji		11		2	13 (8%)
Mina		0		1	1 (3%)

Figure 4: Frequency of third-graders' written translinguaging for each function

	Word-level translinguaging (English words in Korean sentences)	Word-level translinguaging (Korean words in English sentences)	Translinguaging at sentence level (from Korean to English)	Translinguaging at sentence level (from English to Korean)	Total
Sociolinguistic knowledge					
Toni	13				13 (50%)
Julie	21				21 (51%)
Suji	29				29 (54%)
Mina	10				10 (32%)
Metalinguistic awareness					
Toni	11		0		11 (42%)
Julie	17		0		17 (40%)
Suji	17		3		20 (37%)
Mina	21		0		21 (68%)
Metacognitive insight					
Toni	1				1 (4%)
Julie	0				0
Suji	0				0
Mina	0				0
Sociocultural knowledge					
Toni		1			1 (4%)
Julie		4			4 (9%)
Suji		5			5 (9%)
Mina		0			0

APPENDIX B: COMPARISON OF TRANSLANGUAGING BETWEEN GRADES

Figure 5: Comparison of oral translanguaging between first- and third-graders

First-graders	Third-graders
Sociolinguistic knowledge	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Utilizing dual lexicon: prefers to use English words Quicker lexical access to a particular language (mostly in English) Borrowing of lexical items for unknown words (mostly Korean words) Express bilingual identity Interlocutors' influence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Utilizing dual lexicon: prefers to use English words Quicker lexical access to English but also spoke the translanguaged words in Korean Interlocutors' influence
Metalinguistic awareness	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Application of prior knowledge to create meanings Understanding of concepts for unknown Korean words Regulation of language choices to make jokes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Demonstration of comparative linguistic knowledge of Korean and English Identifying the character's language use Ensuring understanding of difficult Korean words Regulation of language choices to make jokes
Metacognitive insight	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engaging in inner speech by translanguaging into English 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engaging in inner speech by translanguaging into English
Sociocultural knowledge	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of Korean words for culturally based referents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of Korean words for culturally based referents

Figure 6: Comparison of written translanguageing between first- and third-graders

First-graders	Third-graders
Sociolinguistic knowledge	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quicker lexical access to English • Ensuring reader's understanding using English sentences • Utilizing dual lexicon 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying linguistic features from both languages • Using sociolinguistic knowledge from Korean by translanguageing into Korean
Metalinguistic awareness	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distinguishing places for texts (in Korean) and captions (in English) • Organizing ideas using English before composing in Korean • Expanding thoughts using English • Explaining a concept using English 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distinguishing places for texts and captions but wrote translanguageed words in Korean in their main texts • Writing in English about the English language and writing in Korean about the Korean language • Using metalinguistic insight when writing proper nouns
Metacognitive insight	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engaging in inner-speech for writing-related talk (translanguageing into English for her unknown Korean word) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engaging in inner-speech for writing-related talk (translanguageing into Korean by identifying the readers)
Sociocultural knowledge	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing Korean words for culturally based referents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing Korean words for culturally based referents

APPENDIX C: IRB LETTER

IRB #16206 Amendment 02 Approved



Inbox x



Institutional Review Board <irb@illinois.edu>

Jan 10



to me, Georgia

Good morning, Dr. Garcia & Chachyun,

This message serves to supply UIUC IRB approval for the modifications being made to your protocol IRB #16206, *Korean Emergent Bilingual Students' Language Use and Translanguaging*. This amendment approves the following changes:

- Updating study title to: *Korean Emergent Bilingual Students' Language Use and Translanguaging*

It has been determined that the research activities described in this application still meet the criteria for exemption at 45CFR46.101(b)(1). Attached you will find a full copy of the approved protocol with all changes included.

We appreciate your conscientious adherence to the requirements of human subjects research. If you have any questions about the IRB process, or if you need assistance at any time, please feel free to contact me at the OPRS office, or visit our website at <http://oprs.research.illinois.edu>.

Best wishes,

Jennifer



Office for the Protection
of Research Subjects